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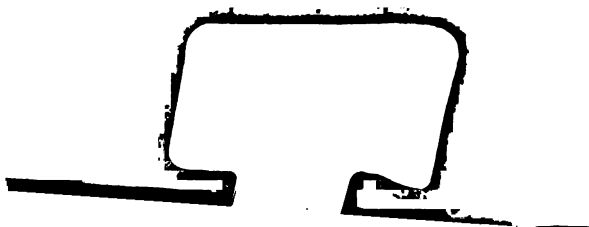
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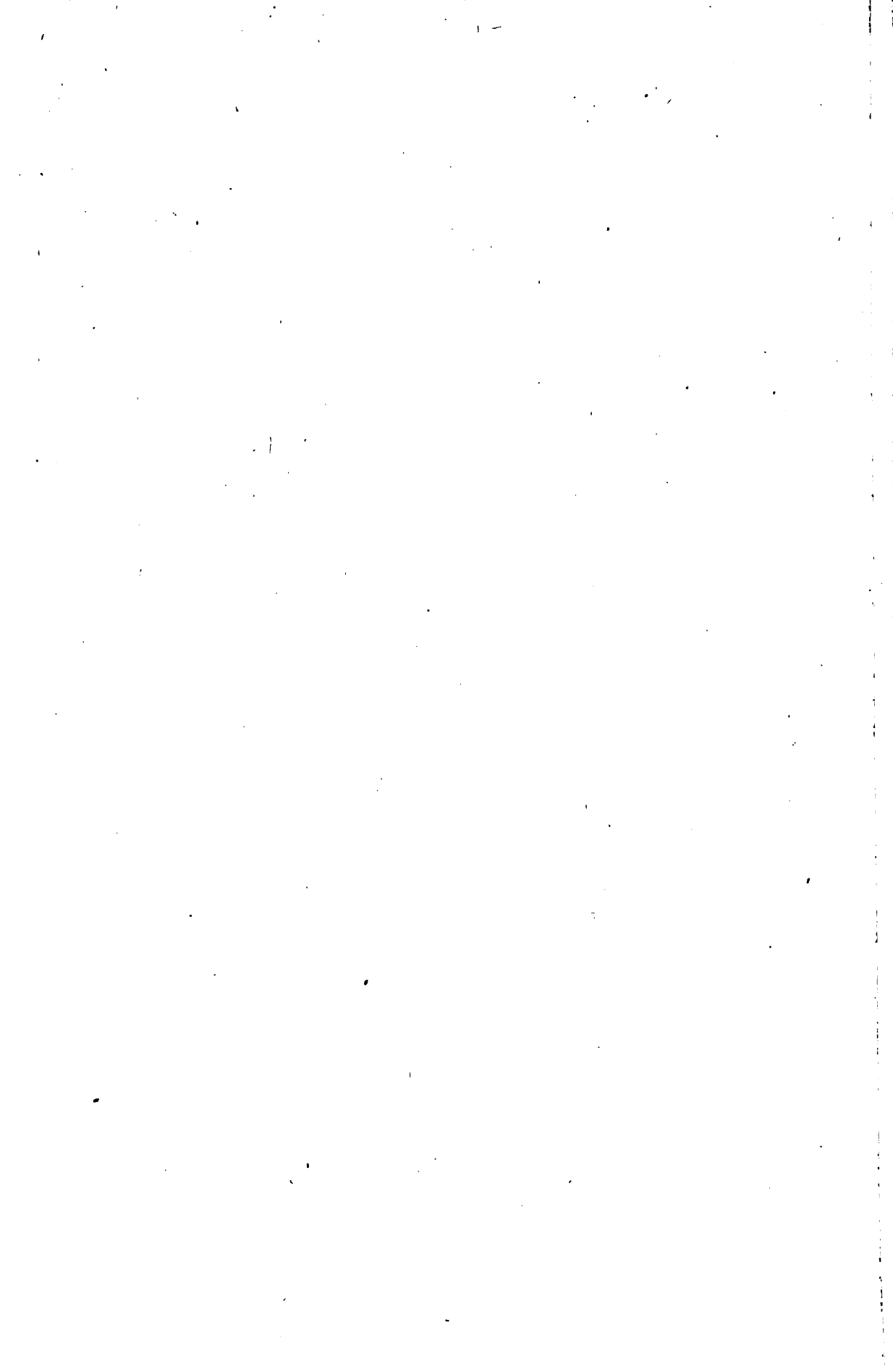
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WILLIAM W. W. W.
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JONATHAN EDWARDS.

From a portrait by Rembrandt Peale [1787-1860], in the private gallery of Eli Whitney, Esq., at New Haven, Conn. The portrait by Peale is itself a copy of an original by John Smibert [1680-1751].

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES
OF
PREËMINENT AMERICANS

BY
FREDERICK G. HARRISON

WITH
One Hundred and Twenty Photogravure Portraits.

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VOLUME I.

BOSTON
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PORTRAITS IN VOLUME I.

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ISRAEL PUTNAM,	ALEXANDER HAMILTON, —
SAMUEL ADAMS,	× JAMES MONROE,
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PREFACE.

THE title of this work is indicative of its scope and design. The author has attempted to lay before the reader, in as concise a form as possible, the important facts in the lives of those men whose genius and enterprise have aided, in an especial manner, in the upbuilding of this great nation, or who have exercised a powerful influence over the minds and hearts of their fellow-countrymen. The sketches are biographical, and in no sense critical, the element of criticism having been avoided, not only out of regard to the limits of space, but also from the feeling that the author's opinions would not be likely to be of interest to the great public, into whose hands it is confidently hoped that the work will find its way, and who are themselves amply qualified to judge of the merits or demerits of the ~~great~~ men of the past and present. The arrangement is chronological, so that while each biography is complete in itself, taken collectively, the "Sketches," present a panoramic view of the principal events in the history of the United States from early colonial days to the present time.

The series of superb photogravure portraits is a source of pardonable pride to the publishers, who, in return for the lavish outlay which they have made, have the supreme satisfaction of being able to present to the American people, a work of artistic excellence never before attempted. No such result would have been possible, had it not been for the

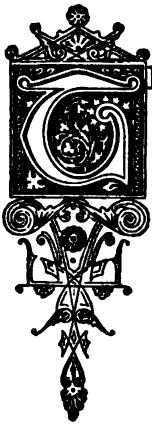
PREFACE.

cheerful coöperation of the owners of the originals, who, with uniform courtesy, have permitted our artists to copy the choicest treasures of their galleries, and we take this opportunity to extend to them, one and all, our most sincere thanks.

The selection of subjects was made after long and mature deliberation. With the single exception of Alexander Hamilton, they are all American by birth, and each of the varied walks of life has its representatives. A few names, chiefly belonging to the revolutionary, or pre-revolutionary period, although justly entitled to claim the honorable distinction of "preëminent," have been reluctantly excluded, from the fact that a most diligent search has failed to discover any authentic portrait extant. The author has availed himself of every source of information possible, and has consulted authorities so numerous as to preclude detailed mention, and, at times, so varying as to call for very careful examination and comparison in order to arrive at a correct statement of facts. There has been an honest endeavor, on the part of both author and publishers, to prepare a work worthy of the confidence of the public; one that shall be of value to the student, and of interest to the general reader, whether the free institutions of the land we love be his by birthright, or whether he shall have come from a foreign shore to make them his own by adoption.

FREDERICK G. HARRISON.

JONATHAN EDWARDS.



THE year 1703 witnessed the birth of two children, each of whom were destined to become world-renowned religious leaders, though in widely differing spheres of action. They were Wesley, in the Old World, and Edwards in the New. The subject of this sketch was born October 5, in East Windsor, in the Connecticut Colony. He was the only son among the eleven children of Rev. Timothy Edwards, who was for more than sixty years pastor of the church at East Windsor. His mother was a woman of more than ordinary intelligence, having a profound knowledge of Scripture, and the theology of the times. From her, even more than from his father, Jonathan Edwards inherited his peculiar talents.

He was a precocious boy, taking deep interest in his studies, and was a keen observer of nature. In his twelfth year we find him writing theological essays. At thirteen he entered Yale College, which had then been in existence only fifteen years. There is just a suspicion of his having indulged to some extent in the usual follies of students, there being some accounts of a "disturbance" during his connection with the college. If such be a fact, it would seem to be the only break in the strict regularity of his life. He graduated with high honors at seventeen. He was, from earliest childhood, inspired with a deep reverence for religion, although it presented itself to him in its most austere form.

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JONATHAN EDWARDS.

The exact date when he united with the church is not known. "The Church," of course, signified the Puritan Independents, or Congregationalists, who were at that time under the special protection of the government in New England—in fact, themselves constituted the government. Indeed, it was only about eleven years before Edwards' birth that Episcopalians, Baptists, and Quakers were excused from the compulsory support of the Congregational Church in Massachusetts. After leaving college he remained two years at New Haven, pursuing his theological studies. Then he received a call to a Presbyterian church in New York. After preaching there eight months, he returned to his father's home in Windsor. He accepted a tutorship in Yale College in 1724, and continued to perform his duties in that capacity with great efficiency for two years. From his diary at this period we learn of his deep and increasing piety, and growing inclination to abstain from worldly pleasure.

In 1727 he went to Northampton in Massachusetts, and was ordained as colleague to his grandfather, Rev. Solomon Stoddard, after whose death he succeeded to the pastorate. Northampton had been settled about three-quarters of a century when Edwards took up his residence there, and had already become a thriving village, the home of considerable wealth and refinement. Its church was considered the most important one in the province, outside of Boston. Jonathan Edwards is described as being at this time tall and slender, slightly above six feet in height, and of great gravity of manner. He is said to have devoted thirteen hours a day to study, preparing two sermons each week. His only diversions were his solitary rides or walks.

A few months after his ordination he was married to Sarah Pierrepont, a beautiful and pious girl of seventeen, who remained his faithful companion throughout his life, and only survived him a few months. A numerous family of children were born to them, and were admirably reared

JONATHAN EDWARDS.

by Mrs. Edwards. One of them, Jonathan Edwards the younger, afterwards became almost as celebrated as his father, whom he very closely resembled.

With the growth of the country, the public opinion was undergoing a change with regard to certain theological dogmas. Among those doctrines which people were beginning to call in question, were the Trinity, endless punishment, the atonement, and justification by faith. These Edwards considered it his duty to defend to the utmost of his ability, and to that end preached sermons, and wrote and published books which still continue to be held in high esteem by those who are in sympathy with his teachings. Much of his preaching was stern and monitory, and calculated to work upon the fears of his auditors. One sermon of this nature has become famous. It was preached at Enfield, Conn., in July, 1741. The congregation became convulsed with agony to such an extent that he was obliged to pause in his discourse, and request them to be quiet, so that he might be heard.

The early settlers of New England were distinguished for their severe morality and high integrity. But as men grew prosperous and wealthy, they also grew more lax, so that at length the moral condition of the people seemed to be at a low ebb. About the year 1740 there came a very remarkable reaction, which has since been known as the "Great Awakening." To this change the preaching of Edwards contributed in a marked degree. A similar revival took place about the same time in England, in consequence of the labors of John Wesley. In many instances the popular excitement became very great, and was marked by excesses which were rebuked by some of the more conservative ministers. Among the results of the Awakening were the breaking down of the enormous influence of the Puritan clergy, and the rapid increase in the number of uneducated and itinerant preachers.

But at length Jonathan Edwards met with an unexpected

JONATHAN EDWARDS.

reverse of fortune. Having seen fit to preach against the admission of unconverted persons to the Communion, a practice then very common, since only church members were allowed to vote; and also against the circulation of certain immoral books among the young people of his parish; a great controversy arose, and in consequence he was dismissed from the church, June 22, 1750, after a pastorate of twenty-three years. He continued to preach occasionally during a few months, and then, by vote of the town, he was forbidden the further use of the Northampton pulpit.

In the following year he went to Stockbridge, then a frontier town, as pastor, and also as a missionary to the Indians, who formed the greater part of the settlement. With him he took his wife and ten children. One of his daughters, Esther, was shortly after married to the Rev. Aaron Burr, President of Nassau Hall, now Princeton College. Her son became the celebrated Aaron Burr, Vice-President of the United States, the slayer of Alexander Hamilton.

In 1754 Jonathan Edwards published the work, by which he is best known as an author, the *Freedom of the Will*. Upon the death of his son-in-law he was called to the presidency of Princeton, and accepted it. He went to Princeton in January, 1758. Finding the small-pox prevalent, he was inoculated with it according to the medical custom of the time. His constitution, worn out prematurely by his life of incessant toil, broke down, and he died on the 22d of March.



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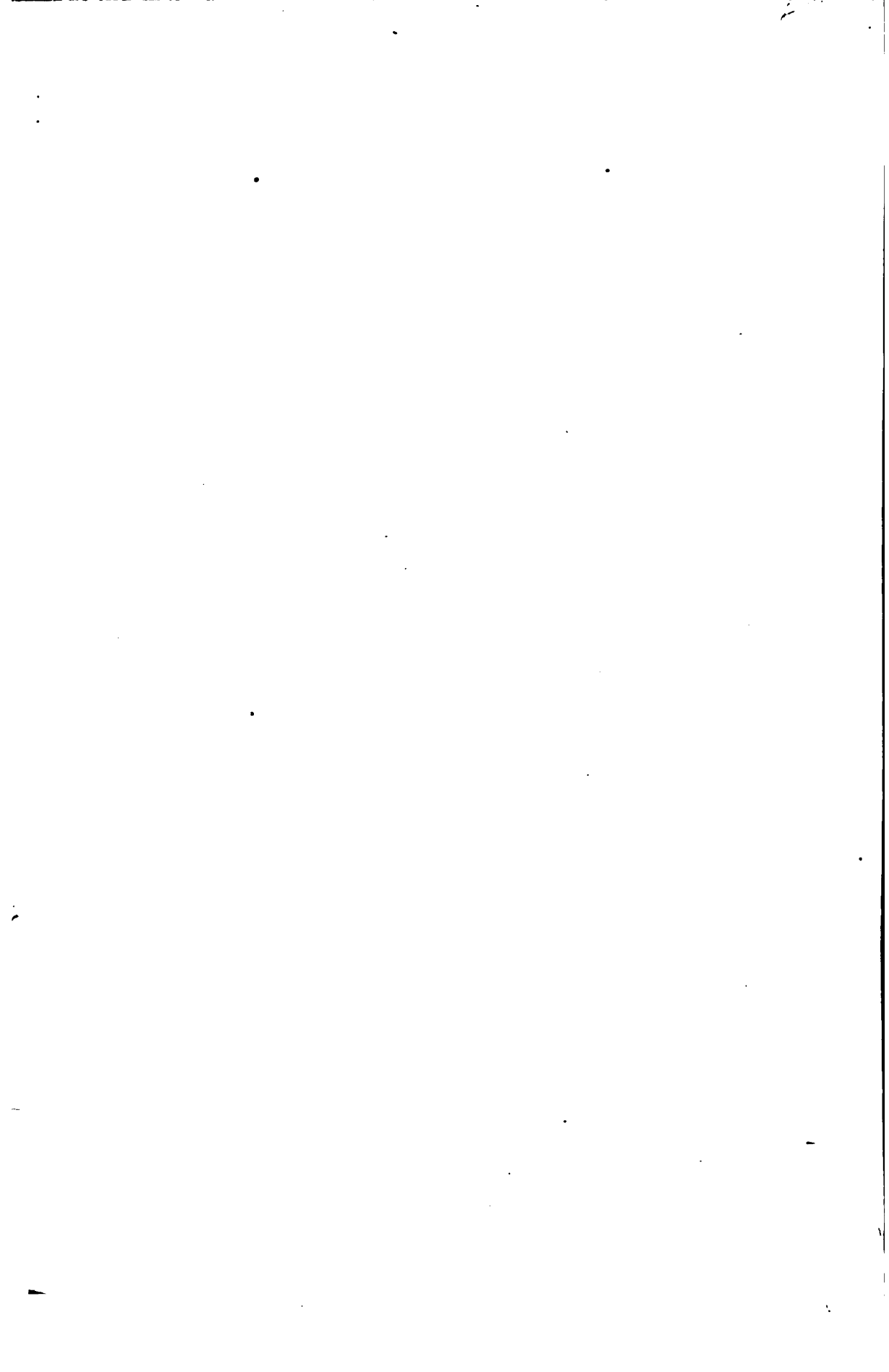


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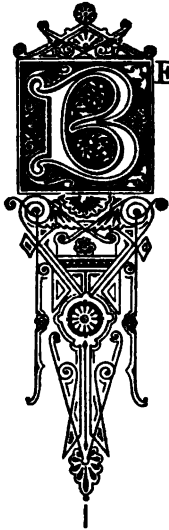
ROY W. B.
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J. B. B.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

From a portrait attributed to Greuze [1725-1805], painted in Europe. The original, which is at the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, is the property of the Boston Athenæum.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, the man who "tore the thunderbolt from the clouds, and the sceptre from the hands of tyrants," was born, a poor tallow-chandler's son, in Boston, January 17, 1706. He was, from his early childhood, remarkably fond of reading, but the cares of a large family prevented his father from giving him more than a couple of years of schooling. At the early age of ten he was set to work at his father's calling. He found this occupation distasteful, and began to manifest a desire to follow the sea, to prevent which he was allowed to learn the printer's trade, being apprenticed to his elder brother, James, in 1718. While thus employed, all his available money was used for the purchase of books, and by unremitting diligence he acquired a considerable knowledge of the principal branches of learning.

In the year 1721, James Franklin established the *New England Courant*, a weekly newspaper. Benjamin's first writings were anonymous contributions to this journal. But before long the *Courant* gained a great notoriety for the scurrility of its contents; and its attacks upon the magistracy and clergy called down the wrath of those gentlemen upon its publisher. James having been confined in jail in consequence of some libellous article, the paper appeared for awhile with the imprint of Benjamin Franklin; but finding himself likely to fall into the same difficulties as his brother,

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

the young publisher decided to run away from his indentures. Being afraid to remain in Boston, he secretly secured a passage to New York. From thence he proceeded to Philadelphia, where he arrived, almost penniless, in the year 1723.

Obtaining employment as a printer, he chanced to come under the notice of Sir William Keith, Governor of Pennsylvania, who induced him to go to England to procure materials necessary to establish himself in business. Keith represented to him that he should receive the government printing, and promised to give him introductory letters to friends in England, as well as to furnish him with credit; but he failed to keep his word as to the letters, and it transpired that Keith was entirely destitute of credit: and so Franklin found himself, upon his arrival in England, once more destitute. He succeeded, however, in getting work at his trade, and led a somewhat gay life in London, getting a good insight into business, making the acquaintance of some people of note, but saving up no money, until 1726, when he returned to Philadelphia.

For a few months after his return he was employed as a clerk by a merchant whom he had met in London. Then his employer died, and he resumed the printer's trade. After a time he formed a partnership with a fellow-workman, and the two set up in business on their own account. In 1729 they bought out the *Pennsylvania Gazette*. The partnership was dissolved in 1730, and Franklin began his remarkably successful business career. Under his management the *Gazette* became very popular. At this time he also began to evince great public spirit, interesting himself in the welfare of his fellow-citizens, and he entered upon those scientific investigations which have given him a world-wide fame.

He married in 1730. In 1732 the first number of "Poor Richard's Almanac" appeared, and it continued to be issued annually for many years. Its wise maxims and quaint sayings have been republished thousands of times, and have become

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

proverbial. He likewise became an extensive publisher of books. He was elected Clerk to the Assembly in 1736, which position he filled for over fourteen years. In 1737 he was made postmaster of Philadelphia. The Franklin Stove was his invention in the year 1742.

During the Old French War he was active in providing for the defence of Philadelphia against an anticipated attack, and was appointed colonel of the troops raised for that purpose. This honor he declined, not considering himself fitted for military service. In 1748 he disposed of his business, but continued to receive from his successor an income of a thousand pounds a year for the next eighteen years. He was now at leisure to pursue his studies without interruption. In 1752 he astonished the world by his discovery of the electrical nature of lightning. This was justly considered one of the most important discoveries of the age. The Royal Society elected him a Fellow, and voted him their gold medal. Harvard and Yale conferred their honors on him. Meanwhile he had paid attention to other scientific and literary subjects, and learned to read several of the modern languages. In 1753, having been in charge of the Philadelphia post-office for sixteen years, he was appointed Deputy Postmaster-General for North America.

He now began to agitate a union of the Colonies, at first for common defence against the French, and later for a more successful resistance to the encroachments of the British Government upon their rights. He also served some time as a member of the Provincial Assembly, and held several important municipal offices. At one time during the Seven Years' War he was commander of a little army sent to protect the frontier.

Up to this time the vast possessions of the descendants of William Penn had been exempt from taxation. The people now demanded that the proprietary domain should bear its proper proportion of the heavy burdens incurred by the

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Province during the French and Indian Wars. This resulted in a long contest between the governor and the Assembly, and Franklin was chosen by that body to carry their case before the Privy Council in England. He was absent in England over five years, and the results of his labors were favorable to the popular cause.

During his residence abroad, besides attending to his public business, he found time to pursue his philosophical experiments, and to hold intercourse with many eminent European scholars, by whom he was treated with marked respect. In 1759 he visited Scotland. St. Andrews conferred the doctorate by which he has ever since been distinguished. Edinburgh gave him her freedom. He also received the degree of D. C. L. from Oxford. He made a short visit to Holland in 1761. He had been accompanied to England by his son William, who there completed his legal studies, and was admitted to the bar. William fortunately obtained the friendship of Lord Bute, the favorite of young King George III., and before long was appointed governor of New Jersey. Dr. Franklin, having finished his mission, returned to America, arriving in Philadelphia November 1, 1762. He was now fifty-six years of age, and contemplated retiring to private life, but the most important part of that life was yet to come.

In the year 1764, the wise statesmen of Great Britain came to the conclusion that the American Colonies ought to bear a portion of the English public debt, some of which had been incurred for their benefit. But in place of asking grants from the Colonial Legislatures for this purpose, Parliament proceeded to lay taxes in America by their own authority. This unjust proceeding, by a body in which they were unrepresented, met with instant opposition from the Colonists. Dr. Franklin was again appointed agent to England, to look after the interests of Pennsylvania, and soon afterward several of the other Colonies elected him to serve them in the same

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

capacity. He sailed for Europe in November, 1764, and remained abroad during the next eleven years.

But the Stamp Act was passed, in spite of all his efforts to prevent it. For this, strangely enough, he was blamed ; and during the memorable excitement which took place when the news of the passage was received, Dr. Franklin's house narrowly escaped destruction by the mob of Philadelphia. He was one of the chief witnesses who were examined before the House of Commons in 1766, and in consequence of whose testimony the odious act was repealed. Though opposing the tyrannical measures of Parliament, Franklin was at this time loyal to his sovereign, with whom he was on friendly terms. He still employed his leisure in his favorite scientific pursuits ; his experiments covering a wide range of subjects. He also wrote for the press, using his pen faithfully in the cause of his beloved country. During this long absence from his family his wife died, in Philadelphia, in December, 1774.

The time now came when his hopes of adjusting the difficulties between the Colonies and the mother country were almost gone. His position in England had become very uncomfortable. He was in fear of arrest, so great was the irritation of the government against Americans. Finding he could be of no further service, he left London, March 21, 1775, and arrived home about two weeks after the Battle of Lexington. The very next day he was elected to the Continental Congress. One of the first measures of that body was to elect Dr. Franklin Postmaster-General, from which office the king had removed him in 1774. He now considered that the government of England had, by their outrages upon his countrymen, forfeited all claims upon their allegiance, and he took his stand in favor of Independence. In 1776 he was a member of the committee which went to Canada, authorized to receive that Province into the Union of the Colonies. This mission proved a failure. Returning to Congress, he was appointed member of the committee to draw up the

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Declaration of Independence, which document received his signature July 4, 1776.

Being well acquainted with the French language, and thoroughly trained in diplomacy during his long residence abroad, he was selected, with Lee and Deane, as ambassador to France, where he succeeded in obtaining valuable assistance for the struggling Colonies. He arrived in France in December, 1776, and resided there for the following nine years. His popularity was remarkable among all classes of the French people, and he represented his country with great dignity and ability. He became sole ambassador in 1779. Two years later, having reached his seventy-fifth year, he was desirous of retiring, but his services could not be dispensed with, and he was appointed commissioner, with Adams and Jay, to negotiate with Great Britain for peace. When, at length, the terms were agreed upon, and the treaty was signed, he once more applied for permission to retire to his home, which was granted in March, 1785, Thomas Jefferson being appointed to succeed him.

His country still demanded his services. He was elected president of Pennsylvania, and held the office for three years. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention, and aided materially in the formation of the new government, notwithstanding his advanced age and growing infirmities. He retained his wonderful faculties till the last. Less than a month before his death he published a brilliant satire directed against the institution of negro slavery. He died at Philadelphia, April 17, 1790, leaving behind him a reputation for business ability, scientific and literary attainments, and patriotism, unequalled by any man of the age.



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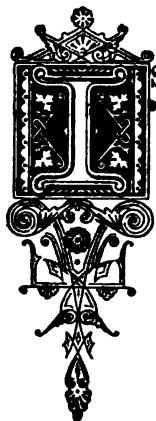


ROY VON
JULIUS
VON

ISRAEL PUTNAM.

From a portrait by H. I. Thompson, after a pencil sketch
from life by John Trumbull [1756-1843] in the
Governor's Room at the Connecticut
State Capitol at Hartford.

ISRAEL PUTNAM.



ISRAEL PUTNAM was born in Danvers, Mass., then a portion of Salem, January 7, 1718. He married in 1739, and the year following removed to Connecticut, where he had purchased a farm. His natural bravery is well illustrated by an incident which occurred at this period of his life. A fierce wolf had become the terror of all the surrounding country, making disastrous nocturnal ravages among Putnam's sheep and those of his neighbors. No one else dared to encounter the savage beast, so Putnam himself undertook the hazardous business. Causing a rope to be tied to his feet, he crawled into the den through a very narrow entrance, carrying in one hand his rifle and in the other a lighted torch. The flame terrified the animal and gave Putnam a chance to discharge his piece, badly wounding the wolf, and rendering himself almost insensible from the concussion and smoke. He was drawn out by means of the rope, and after regaining his breath, re-entered the cave, this time with a drawn knife, and succeeded in despatching the wolf. He was industrious and prudent, and when the French and Indian war broke out, in 1755, he had already become a well-to-do farmer.

He received a captain's commission in the Connecticut Militia, and joined the expedition against Crown Point. He was present at the defeat of the French at Lake George. During the next two years the British were very unfortunate in their military operations, but Putnam remained in the

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ISRAEL PUTNAM.

field, displaying great bravery. In 1757 he was promoted to the rank of major. In 1758 he took part in Abercrombie's unsuccessful attack upon Ticonderoga, and was with the lamented Lord Howe when he was killed. Shortly afterwards he was taken prisoner by a body of the Indian allies of the French, and subjected to severe tortures, only escaping death by fire through the interposition of a French officer. After being taken to Montreal, he was exchanged. In the campaign of 1759 he served under General Amherst, and was raised to the rank of lieutenant-colonel.

In 1762 the Colonies were called upon to send reinforcements to the British troops who were then besieging Havana. General Lyman, Putnam's senior officer, was put in command of the Provincials, and the immediate command of the Connecticut regiment devolved upon Putnam. His transport was wrecked on the coast of Cuba, but he and all his men were fortunate in reaching the shore in safety. The city of Havana surrendered after a severe bombardment. Two years later, Putnam, now a colonel, commanded a regiment which was sent to the relief of Detroit, then undergoing its memorable siege by the Indians under Pontiac.

At the close of the war he retired to his farm, after ten years of active service, with an established military reputation; having gained the affection of his men and the confidence of his superiors. His wife died in 1765, just after his return.

It was the year of the Stamp Act. Putnam was not behind his neighbors in his resistance to the odious measure, and it was probably due in great measure to the violence of his opposition that no stamped paper was ever sent into Connecticut. About this same time he set up as an inn-keeper. Between his tavern and his farm, his time was occupied for some ten years, during which his neighbors showed their confidence in him by electing him to several town offices, as well as to a seat in the legislature. He married again in

ISRAEL PUTNAM.

1767. In 1773 he made a voyage up the Mississippi as far as Natchez, to explore a tract of land of which he had received a grant. His business frequently brought him to Boston, where he became an eye-witness of the agitation in the cause of liberty. He was familiarly known to the principal British officers, many of whom had been his comrades in arms. He gave them plainly to understand, that in event of a war, which now seemed to be inevitable, he should be their enemy, and would devote his life to the service of his country.

When the news arrived of the skirmish at Lexington, April 19, 1775, he was in the field, ploughing. Instantly unharnessing his horse, he left the plough in the furrow and set out for Cambridge, where he arrived the following day. After assisting at a council of war, he returned to Connecticut, aided in raising troops there, was appointed by the Legislature to the rank of Brigadier-General, and was back within a week to Cambridge, where he was placed in command. He had, in the meantime, rejected with scorn a major-general's commission in the British Army, together with large emoluments. His military experience proved to be of great value in the construction of the works around Boston. On May 27 he had a skirmish with the enemy on Noddle's Island, now East Boston, in which he was the victor. It was his bolder counsels, as opposed to the more cautious views of Ward and Warren, that led to the occupation and defence of Bunker Hill, and consequently to the battle, June 17, 1775. Washington assumed command of the army July 2, and gave Putnam a commission from the Continental Congress as Major-General. After the evacuation of Boston he was assigned to the command at New York, and charged with the duty of fortifying that city. He found himself obliged to use harsh measures towards the Tories, or Loyalists, who were both numerous and troublesome in that city and its vicinity. He suffered defeat, August 27, 1776, at the battle

ISRAEL PUTNAM.

of Long Island. New York was soon after abandoned to the enemy, and Putnam accompanied Washington in his retreat into New Jersey. Late in the year 1776 he assumed command in Philadelphia, and prepared it for defence. In January, 1777, he removed his headquarters to Princeton, where he remained the rest of the winter, defeating the British in several engagements. In May he was transferred to the Northern Department, with his headquarters at Peekskill, on the Hudson. During the summer the troops under his command were largely drawn from to reinforce the army in other localities, and he was forced to retire to Fishkill before a superior force. Immediately after this misfortune his wife, who had accompanied him during this campaign, died. The inhabitants of the surrounding district having become, for some reason, prejudiced against General Putnam, he was removed from his command by General Washington in March, 1778. He now returned to Connecticut, to raise new levies of militia, but rejoined the army in June, and took command of the right wing, succeeding Lee, who was under arrest for cowardice and disobedience at the battle of Monmouth. The following winter he had his headquarters at Danbury, Connecticut. The troops here were inclined to mutiny, in consequence of their hardships and the arrearage of their pay. By his prompt efforts Putnam restored order, and only one of the ringleaders suffered, who was shot while attempting to escape.

All through his life he was noted for his feats of reckless daring, and for a singular absence of fear. Though his judgment was at times not of the best, and laid him open to charges of incapacity, his personal courage never failed him. One instance, which occurred at about this time, may suffice for an example. With a small body of Americans he made a stand at Horse Neck against Tryon's marauding dragoons. Forced to retire, his soldiers took to a swamp, while he rode swiftly towards Stamford. Pursued by the dragoons, he was

ISRAEL PUTNAM.

nearly overtaken, when he reached a hill, since known as Putnam's Hill, where the road skirted a rocky precipice. Turning his horse from the highway, he plunged straight down this steep declivity, none of the enemy daring to risk their necks in pursuit. He afterwards rallied some of his troops, pursued the British, and regained a portion of their plunder, and took a number of prisoners. It should be remembered that he was, at the time of this renowned exploit, over sixty-one years of age. He served through the campaign of 1779 with Washington, commanding the right wing, near West Point. In December he obtained leave of absence and returned home. He was just about to rejoin the army, when a stroke of paralysis put an end to his military career forever. Although unfitted for any further active business, he survived the shock more than eleven years, retaining the full use of his faculties, and enjoying the esteem of his neighbors and the honor of a friendly correspondence with his illustrious chief. He died at his home in Brooklyn, Connecticut, May 19, 1790.





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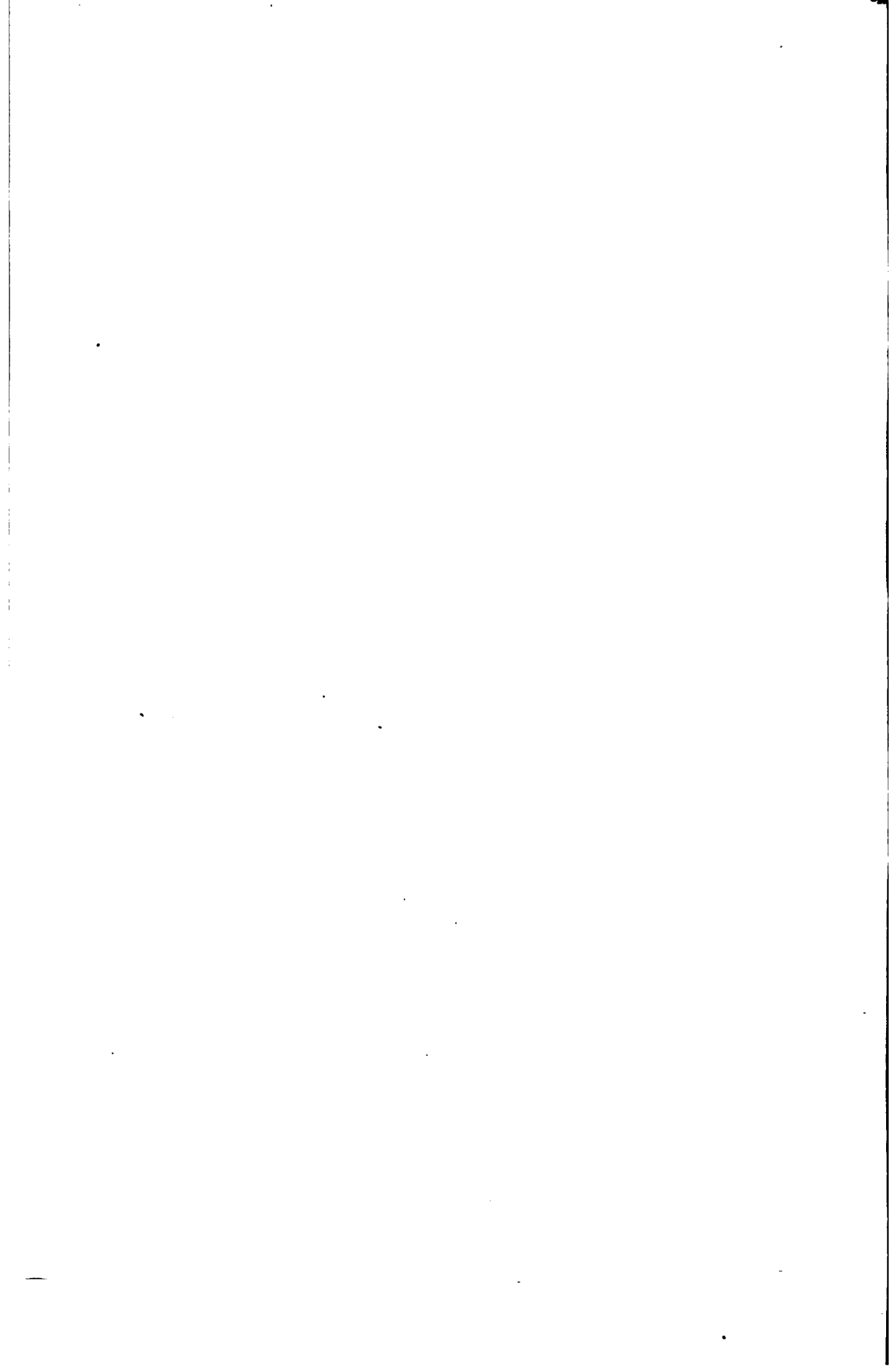


ROY WEN
CLUB
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SAMUEL ADAMS.

From a portrait by John Singleton Copley [1737-1815]

The original, which is the property of the City of Boston,
long adorned the walls of Faneuil Hall, but is now
deposited in the Museum of Fine Arts.



SAMUEL ADAMS.



SAMUEL ADAMS, who has been called the most illustrious citizen of Massachusetts, was born in Boston, September 17, 1722, in a fine mansion on Purchase Street, at that time commanding a full view of the harbor. His father, who was a prominent citizen of the town, founded, in 1724, a political association known as the Calker's Club, whence our word *caucus* has been derived. Samuel received his education in the Latin School and at Harvard College, whence he graduated in 1740. He was by nature a politician, interested in public affairs, and warmly espoused the cause of popular liberty. From his early opposition to the tyranny of the British government, he has been honored with the title of "Father of the Revolution." On the occasion of taking his degree in 1743, he read, in the presence of the Royal Governor, Shirley, an essay on the lawfulness of resistance to magistrates. He began the study of the law, but was induced to give it up and engage in mercantile business. For this he had little tact or inclination, and he met with indifferent success, both by himself and afterward as partner with his father in a brewery. The senior Adams died in 1748, leaving the son to carry on the business alone.

Samuel Adams was married in 1749 to Elizabeth Checkley, who died in 1757, leaving him two children. During this period of his life Adams continued to be a close observer of the political agitations of the time, and was a frequent con-

SAMUEL ADAMS.

tributor to the press in defence of the rights of the Colonies. He was elected one of the collectors of taxes for the town of Boston in 1763, and also in the year following, when, having had much trouble in making his collections, owing to the depression in business, he declined further service. In 1764 and 1765 he drafted the Boston resolutions against the Stamp Act. He married his second wife, Elizabeth Wells, in 1764. The next year he entered the Legislature, where he served some nine years, part of the time being clerk to the House.

He perceived, sooner than most others, the hopelessness of any amicable agreement with the mother country, and began to exert his influence in favor of American Independence. He was one of the foremost in opposing the quartering of troops in Boston. On the 5th of March, 1770, "the Boston Massacre" roused the people to a frenzy of indignation, and a deputation was sent from the Town Meeting, headed by Adams, to demand from the governor the removal of the two regiments of British troops from the town. The governor wished to compromise by removing one of them, but the answer of the people, expressed by Adams, was, "both regiments or none," and both regiments were removed to the Castle.

In 1772 Parliament aimed another blow against the freedom of the people of Massachusetts, by providing that the salaries of the governor and the supreme judges should be paid by the crown, thus rendering them independent of the people, in violation of the charter. It was now that Adams proposed his famous scheme for the formation of Committees of Correspondence in all the towns, who should consult together and make united efforts to resist British tyranny. At first his suggestions were coldly received, but they soon gained the popular favor. Boston led the way, and the example quickly spread to the other towns and into the other Colonies. The year following he made the first suggestion for a Continental Congress.

SAMUEL ADAMS.

The Legislature of 1773 passed a vote to impeach the judges, if they should accept of support from the crown, and Adams drew up a petition to the king, praying for the removal of the governor and the chief justice. In December of the same year he was the leader in the destruction of the cargo of tea, which had been sent to Boston in defiance of the resolutions of the Colonists not to import tea so long as it should be taxed by authority of Parliament. In consequence of his connection with these so-called rebellious measures he became especially obnoxious to the British Government.

Parliament now decided to punish Boston and Massachusetts for resistance to its authority. The charter of the Colony was so altered as to render absolute the royal power, the port of Boston was closed during the pleasure of the king, and a military governor, General Gage, was appointed, with instructions to send Adams and some others of his stamp to England "with ropes round their necks." On the 1st of June, 1774, the Legislature was removed to Salem. Adams now introduced a motion to appoint delegates to a continental congress to meet at Philadelphia. Governor Gage sent a messenger to dissolve the assembly. Adams coolly locked the door of the hall, and kept the key, while the house proceeded with the election. He and three others were named as the delegates. When the business was completed, the doors were again thrown open, and the General Court was dissolved, never to meet again in the name and under the authority of His Majesty King George the Third. So greatly was the influence of Sam. Adams now feared by the government of Great Britain, that not only was a royal order issued for his arrest, but at the same time efforts were made by bribes to secure his defection from the popular cause. His good fortune saved him from the former, while his sterling integrity and unyielding purpose frustrated the latter. He now prepared to attend Congress. He was a poor man, his

SAMUEL ADAMS.

continued public service having prevented him from properly attending to his private business. He was at this time over fifty years of age, and had never been any considerable distance away from his native town. In order that he might make a respectable appearance among his colleagues, who were men of wealth, he was presented with a complete suit of clothing of fine material, in which to make his journey to Philadelphia. The donors were unknown, but it is supposed that they were members of the famous patriotic club, known as "Sons of Liberty." The delegates set out from Boston August 10, and arrived at their destination August 29, 1774. In Congress, Adams opposed all efforts for reconciliation. After the adjournment he returned to Boston, and joined the Provincial Congress at Cambridge, taking part in its proceedings until the time came for him to attend the second session of the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, for which place he set out, in company with John Hancock, April 19, 1775, just in season to escape the expedition which was sent to Lexington to seize them. These two gentlemen were excluded from the general pardon which was offered by Governor Gage to all who would lay down their arms. They met with great honors from the populace all along their journey. In Congress, Adams was in favor of an immediate declaration of independence, but the majority of the members were not yet ready for this extreme measure. On June 15th, he and John Adams proposed George Washington as commander-in-chief, and secured his election.

There was at this time no governor recognized by the citizens of Massachusetts, and in July, 1775, a body of eighteen men was appointed to serve in the joint capacity of a senate and an executive. Of this body Adams was a member, and took his seat during the recess of Congress. He was at once chosen as Secretary of State for the Province, or "Territory of Massachusetts Bay," as it was now called. After his return to Philadelphia he continued to urge upon

SAMUEL ADAMS.

Congress the necessity of proclaiming independence. Even as late as June, 1776, there was scarcely a majority of the delegates in favor of an entire separation from England. But one by one the hesitating patriots came into line, and he had the supreme gratification of affixing his signature, with the rest, to the document which realized his dearest hopes. On July 4, 1776, the glorious act was accomplished, which his prophetic eye had seen more than thirty years before. During this and the following year he was untiring in his efforts to reassure the timid and encourage the despondent. There was great need for services such as these, for the American arms suffered a most disheartening series of reverses. Not only was it difficult, if not impossible, to recruit the wasting ranks of the patriot army, but everywhere men began to return to their old allegiance. They could see no alternative but a return to their former condition of subjects and slaves. Loyalist battalions sprung up in all parts of the land. Against this tide of cowardice and timidity, Samuel Adams planted himself like a rock, even to the serious detriment of his health. He was now a member of the Board of War, and was very efficient in promoting the measures of General Washington, although hampered by the jealousy and opposition of some of his colleagues. It must here be mentioned with some regret that his zeal for his country's welfare, and his comparative ignorance of military affairs, led him at times to criticise the actions of the commander-in-chief. Then, too, he had enemies at home. Chief among these was John Hancock.

During the years 1778 and 1779 he was chairman of the Marine Committee of Congress, and aided materially in increasing the efficiency of the navy. In 1779, his native town chose him to represent her in the State Constitutional Convention, and he was one of the committee of three which framed the Declaration of Rights and Constitution, under which Massachusetts still continues to be governed. It is a

SAMUEL ADAMS.

singular fact, that Mr. Adams' opponents had by this time gained so large a following that, in the first election under the new government, he was nominated for no higher office than that of Secretary of the Commonwealth, and he was defeated for that. His service in Congress closed in April, 1781, and the remainder of his public life was spent in the service of his native State.

His bearing was dignified and gentlemanly, his habits simple, and his means limited. He favored the Democratic, or anti-Federal party, being opposed to the prevailing extravagance of the citizens of Boston, who followed the example set by Governor Hancock and other wealthy and aristocratic leaders. For several years he was President of the State Senate. He warmly supported Governor Bowdoin in the suppression of Shays' Rebellion, in 1786 and 1787, and favored the execution of the ringleaders, who, however, were subsequently pardoned by John Hancock, who had been chosen governor principally because of his clemency toward the condemned rebels.

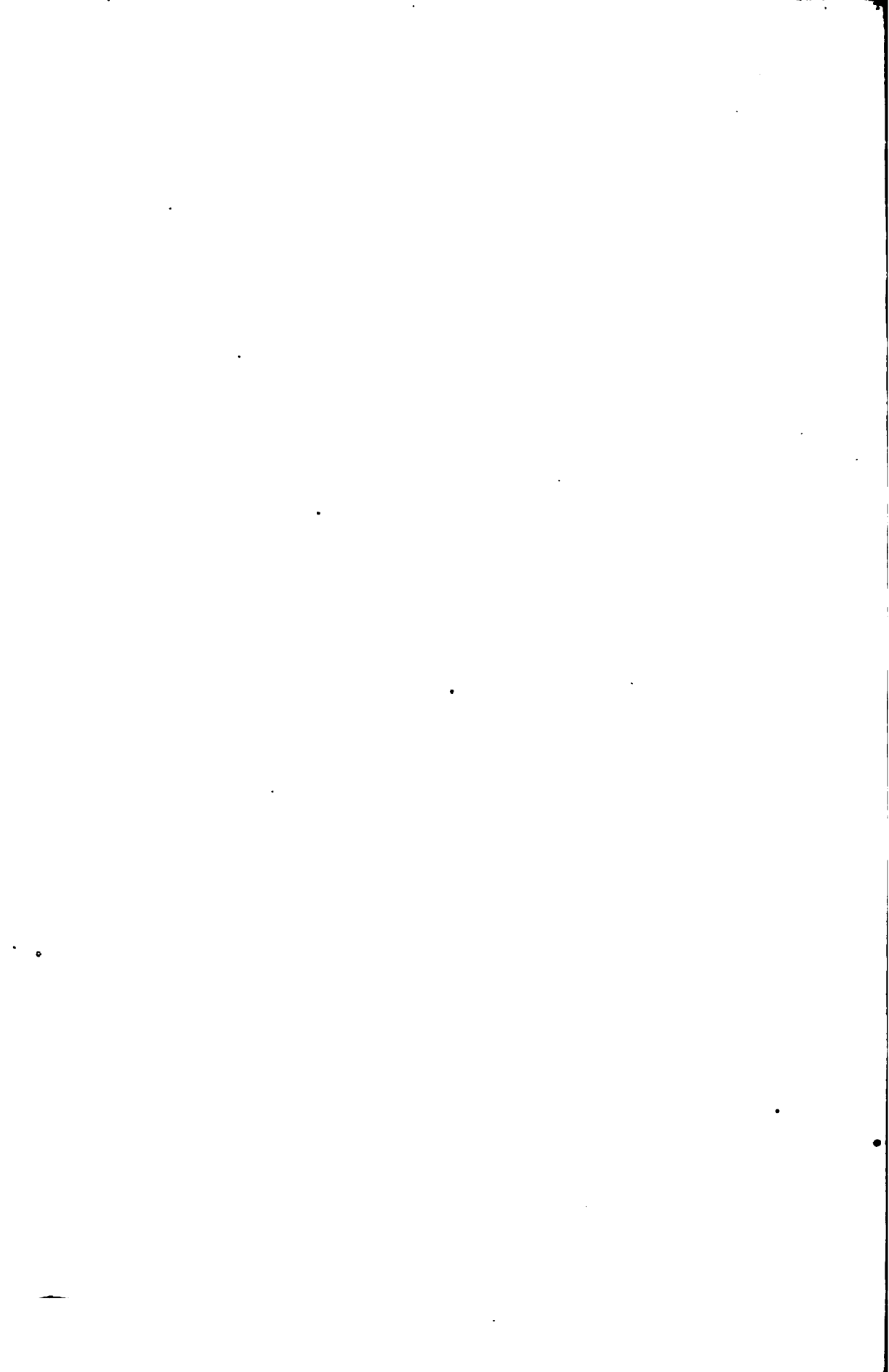
He was a delegate to the Convention to consider the United States Constitution, in 1788. A majority was opposed to ratification, but he used his influence in favor of the Constitution, thinking it unwise to reject this opportunity for securing that Union of the States which he had long desired, although some of the provisions did not meet with his approval. His efforts were successful, and the Constitution was ratified, but only by a small majority. During the session of the Convention, he was afflicted by the loss of his only son, Dr. Samuel Adams, who died at the age of thirty-seven.

Mr. Adams was defeated for Congress, but in 1789 was elected Lieutenant-Governor, and filled that office five successive years. In 1794 he became Governor of Massachusetts, having already performed the duties of that office since the death of Mr. Hancock, in October, 1793. He was three times re-elected. Mr. Adams violently opposed Jay's treaty

SAMUEL ADAMS.

with Great Britain, and refused to call out the militia to suppress the somewhat riotous demonstrations with which the news of that treaty was received by the populace of Boston. He retired from office in May, 1797, and spent his few remaining years in the quiet enjoyment of private life. He died at his residence in Winter Street, Boston, October 2, 1803, in the eighty-second year of his age.







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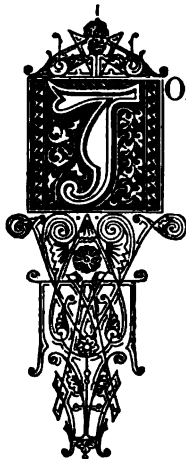


ROYAL
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JOHN STARK.

From a painting by U. D. Tenney, after Trumbull : at the State
Capitol at Concord, N. H.

JOHN STARK.



JOHN STARK was of Scotch parentage. He was born at Londonderry, N. H., August 28, 1728. His opportunities for obtaining an education were very limited. He was captured by the Indians while hunting, in 1752, and lived with them for some time, acquiring a knowledge of their customs which was of great value to him in after years. After his release, he was employed by the authorities of New Hampshire in the capacity of a guide for parties sent out to explore the wild country in the northern portion of the Province. He bore a part in the French and Indian War, entering Rogers' corps of rangers as a lieutenant in 1755, and rising to the rank of captain. In 1758, while absent from his command on a furlough, Captain Stark was married to Elizabeth Page.

All through this war he showed a remarkable power of endurance. At its close he retired to his farm, and soon became imbued with the spirit of patriotism, then rife among the American people. When the war broke out between England and her colonies, he at once proceeded to the scene of conflict, being appointed colonel of one of the New Hampshire regiments which formed the left of the American line at Bunker Hill. It was on this occasion that he gave his celebrated order, "Aim at their waistbands, boys!" When the Americans were forced to yield after a desperate struggle, Stark aided, materially, in covering the retreat.



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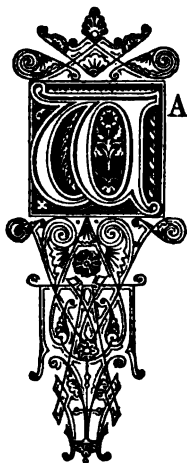


NOV 1789
JAN 1790
FEB 1790

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

From the celebrated "Athenæum Portrait," at the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, painted from life by Gilbert Stuart [1755-1828]. The artist considered this portrait almost as the work of an inspiration. He was never able to make a satisfactory copy of it himself, and was much annoyed by the attempts made by others. The present reproduction is believed to be the only one ever made with absolute fidelity to the original. Only the face was ever completed, as may be seen by the unfinished appearance of the lower part of the portrait.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.



WASHINGTON was born in Westmoreland County, Va., February 22, 1732. His education, which was acquired at a common school, was mathematical rather than classical. He selected the profession of a land surveyor, and applied himself so diligently to his studies, that at the age of sixteen he had attained a high degree of proficiency. He now left school and went to reside with his elder brother at Mount Vernon. He was here brought in contact with some of the best society of Virginia. To a naturally courteous disposition he added a superb physique. Prominent among the friends of his early youth was William Fairfax, with whom resided his cousin, Lord Fairfax. The latter, an English nobleman of wealth, who possessed large tracts of unexplored land in the Blue Ridge region, employed Washington, although at that time only a boy in years, to make a survey of this extensive property. In the prosecution of this task he underwent many hardships, being exposed to storms and the attacks of wild beasts, and was often forced to accept the rude hospitality of the savages. So well was his duty performed, that he was at once appointed to the office of Public Surveyor of the Province, and for three years he followed his favorite occupation. He found plenty of business and obtained a good income. When only nineteen he was appointed major in the Virginia Militia, and was given charge

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

of one of the military districts into which the province was divided for protection against the Indians.

The frontier settlers of Virginia were exposed, at this time, not only to the hostility of the Indians, but also to that of the French, who claimed the ownership of the Ohio Valley. Before making an open declaration of war, Governor Dinwiddie determined to try the effect of negotiation. For his agent in this enterprise he selected George Washington, who had just attained his majority. With only eight companions, he travelled over five hundred miles through the wilderness, in winter, to the headquarters of the French commander, on the Ohio. Here he presented the governor's demand, that he should retire from his position. But the French were determined to hold their ground, and Washington returned to Williamsburg, then the capital of Virginia, and received the thanks of the Assembly for the manner in which he had conducted his mission.

War being inevitable, he was appointed colonel, and put in command of an expedition against the French. He gained a slight advantage in a skirmish on May 28, 1754, which was the beginning of the Seven Years' War; but, being opposed by a largely superior force, he was obliged to surrender at New Meadows, having obtained honorable terms from the enemy. The next year, 1755, General Braddock arrived from England with a force of regulars. In his ignorance of the customs of Indian warfare, he imagined he had only to march into the wilderness and sweep the French and their savage allies before him. He was warned by Washington of the dangerous nature of his enterprise, but he scorned to take the advice of one whom he considered so greatly his inferior in military attainments. Accompanied by Washington as an aid-de-camp, Braddock went on to his doom. The English forces were surprised by an ambuscade at Fort Du Quesne and utterly routed. Washington was unable to stay the flight of the regulars after General Braddock was killed,

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

but drew off the provincial troops in good order. The chief command of the militia devolved on Washington, and he held the position during the remainder of the war.

Washington was married January 6, 1759, to Martha Custis, a widow of wealth. After the close of the war, he settled at Mount Vernon, now become his own property, through his brother's death. He was now one of the richest planters of Virginia, and fifteen years passed away in the enjoyment of peace, and in the exercise of hospitality. During most of this period he was a member of the provincial House of Burgesses.

In the memorable year, 1775, he was forty-three years of age, just in the prime of his life. He had been chosen to represent Virginia in the Continental Congress, and now, at the suggestion of Massachusetts delegates, he was made Commander-in-Chief of the patriot armies. Of course, anything more than the merest outline of his military operations, during the war for independence, is beyond our present limits.

He took command at Cambridge in July, 1775, and continued the siege of Boston until its evacuation in March, 1776. In April he went to New York, and fortified that city, but was forced to evacuate it in August, after Putnam's defeat on Long Island. He remained for some time in the southern part of New York State, but late in the year was driven into New Jersey by Cornwallis. After retiring across that State and into Pennsylvania, he turned about, and made his famous passage of the Delaware River on Christmas Day, and, on the day following, surprised and defeated the enemy at Trenton. He then retired into Pennsylvania. In January, 1777, he again marched northward, defeating the British at Princeton on his way, and went into winter-quarters at Morristown, New Jersey. The following summer, he marched southward, with the view of preventing the British occupation of Philadelphia, but was defeated at Brandywine. He then retreated through Philadelphia, of which city the

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

British took possession September 26, their main army encamping at Germantown. Here, Washington attacked them, October 4, again meeting with defeat. The winter was spent at Valley Forge, Penn., where his army suffered severely from cold and lack of provisions. He had been invested by Congress with almost the powers of a dictator. Many of his subordinate officers became at this time dissatisfied, and formed a conspiracy to depose him from his command. But he was enabled to triumph over all these private enemies, and the world now looks with contempt upon those narrow-minded men whose ambition was greater than their love of country. The British, fearing the approach of a French fleet, evacuated Philadelphia, June 18, 1778, retiring toward New York. Washington hung upon their rear, inflicting a severe defeat upon them at Monmouth, June 28, a day long remembered for the intensity of the heat. The British finally took refuge in New York, while Washington marched to White Plains. Two years now passed in desultory warfare, the American army suffering severely, but neither side gaining any great advantage. It was a time of discouragement for the Colonists, and it seemed as if their cause would be lost. In the fall of 1780, Arnold perpetrated his treason, and West Point narrowly escaped falling into the enemy's hands. The spirit of mutiny also made its appearance. Amid all these disastrous circumstances, Washington remained tranquil, being firmly convinced that he should finally be triumphant over the foes of his country. At length, after long and weary waiting, the opportunity came for striking a decisive blow. Lord Cornwallis was posted at Yorktown. Washington manœuvred so as to induce the British to suppose that he intended to attack New York, and then, by forced marches, he led his army into Virginia, and invested Yorktown. At the same time, the French fleet entered the harbor, and, after a short resistance, Cornwallis surrendered, October 19, 1781. This really decided the con-

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

test, although hostilities did not finally cease until April 19, 1783. Washington at this time had his headquarters at Newburg, on the Hudson, in a house which still remains standing, preserved as a memorial in his honor by the State of New York. New York was evacuated by the British, November 25, 1783, and Washington entered the city in triumph. After taking leave of his officers, he proceeded to Annapolis, where Congress was in session, and surrendered his commission, December 23, 1783. He now spent a few years in retirement, from which he was called to assist in forming a new government for the Confederation of States. He was chosen to preside over the convention which met for this purpose, in May, 1787, and in the following year, he was unanimously chosen first President of the United States. He was inaugurated at New York, April 30, 1789.

Some of the principal events of the first administration were the admission of Vermont and Kentucky, the establishment of the United States Bank, and the passage of the first tariff act. Washington made a visit to Boston in the fall of 1789. In the following year a general war with the Indians of the Northwest called for the equipment of considerable numbers of troops. Peace was not restored in that section until 1795. Washington was unanimously re-elected in 1792.

During his second administration, occurred the "Whiskey Insurrection" in Pennsylvania; the trouble with England, which was settled by Jay's treaty; and the admission of Tennessee. Jay's treaty was quite unpopular with the democrats, and was the cause of much hostility toward Washington, who approved it. The whole eight years, during which he was at the head of the nation, were years of popular tumult and political agitation, and many things were said and written about him which have long since passed into deserved oblivion. Wearied with his constant efforts to preserve harmony among the many discordant elements of his government, Washington peremptorily declined a third election.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

During the administration of his successor, John Adams, serious difficulties arose with France, which threatened to lead to war. Congress voted to raise an army of twenty thousand men. Washington was commissioned Lieutenant-General and Commander-in-Chief; but, happily, his services were not required, the difficulties being peacefully adjusted. He died, December 14, 1799, after a short illness, deeply regretted. He is universally regarded as one of the foremost men of all time, and will ever remain first in the hearts of his fellow-countrymen.





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PHILIP SCHUYLER.

After an original by John Trumbull in the Yale Gallery,
New Haven, Conn.

PHILIP SCHUYLER.



PHILIP SCHUYLER was born at Albany, New York, November 22, 1733. His father was a gentleman of leisure, who died when Philip was eight years old, leaving him heir to all his extensive estate. But on reaching his majority, young Schuyler declined to take advantage of the law which gave him the whole of his father's property, and had it equally divided among the family. His early youth was passed amid the alarms of the old French war.

There were few schools in the Province at this time, and young Schuyler remained under his mother's instruction until he was fifteen years of age, when he was sent to New Rochelle, N. Y., where he remained some two years. During his attendance at this school, he was first attacked by the gout, and throughout his life he continued to be tormented by that disease. He appears to have made one or more trading journeys into the wilderness, and to have become quite friendly with the Indians, so that he always retained a great influence over them. Although not much is known of him during these early years, it would appear that he was regarded by the good people of the city of New York, not particularly noted at that time for their book-learning, somewhat in the light of an intellectual prodigy.

In 1755, he was commissioned to recruit a company, of which he was to be captain, to form part of the force under Johnson for the capture of Crown Point. The expedition

PHILIP SCHUYLER.

was a failure, owing to the incapacity of its commander, the only result being a sharp skirmish with the French at Lake George. The French commander, Dieskau, was wounded, and Schuyler provided for his comfort at his own house in Albany. Captain Schuyler was married September 17, 1755, to Catherine Van Rensselaer. They lived together happily for forty-eight years, and were blessed with a family of fourteen children.

Soon after his wedding he returned to the army at Fort Edward. In the following year he was again engaged with the enemy on several occasions, during an expedition to Fort Oswego for the purpose of taking stores to that post, which, however, not long after fell into the hands of Montcalm. He left the service at the close of the campaign of 1756, disgusted with the inefficiency of the British officers. In 1758 he took part in the capture of Fort Frontenac. In 1761 he made a voyage to England in the interest of a friend. During the passage the captain of the vessel died, and the crew and passengers put young Schuyler in command. They were captured by a French privateer, but afterward rescued by an English man-of-war, and convoyed to London. In 1764 he was commissioner to settle the boundary disputes between New York and Massachusetts.

During the years of popular agitation which preceded the Revolution, Philip Schuyler warmly espoused the cause of the Colonists. In 1767 he raised a regiment of militia and was commissioned its colonel. In 1768 he was chosen to represent Albany in the Legislature. He was firm in his opposition to the claims of the British government, and became a leader of the popular party. In 1775 he was elected to the Continental Congress. Upon the recommendation of the New York Provincial Congress, he was appointed Major-General, and accompanied General Washington as far as New York, where he assumed command of the Northern Department. He soon received orders to prepare

PHILIP SCHUYLER.

for an invasion of Canada. The Loyalists were very troublesome in northern New York, and had succeeded in gaining over large numbers of the Indians to the British. In order to counteract their influence, if possible, Congress established a Board of Commissioners for Indian Affairs, and placed General Schuyler at its head. He arrived at Ticonderoga in July and found only about twelve hundred troops. These were in a wretched condition, and very little disposed to obey orders. He immediately set to work to establish discipline, at the same time urging Congress to supply him with the reinforcements necessary for his expedition. They came in very slowly, and the delay gave the enemy ample opportunity to make their preparations for defence. Not until September was the American army in a condition to march northward. Schuyler, in the meantime, had returned to Albany to negotiate with the Indians, and also to take measures against certain of the Loyalists in that vicinity. Montgomery had begun to move the troops up Lake Champlain, when Schuyler overtook him at Isle de la Motte, September 4. While proceeding up the lake, he was stricken with a fever and was obliged to transfer the command to Montgomery, while he himself returned to Ticonderoga, his base of supplies, which he found in great disorder. Discouraged by ill-health, by the tardiness with which Congress responded to his calls for men and stores, and by the continued insubordination of his troops, he tendered his resignation. He yielded, however, to the entreaties of Washington, who always highly esteemed him, and continued in the command of his department.

Meanwhile Montgomery had laid siege to St. Johns, and captured it November 2, and had also taken Montreal. But his army was rapidly diminishing, and he wrote to Schuyler, entreating him to come to Canada and assume command in person. This was impossible, his continued illness compelling him to return to Albany; but he made great exertions to supply the necessary reinforcements and stores. He was

PHILIP SCHUYLER.

much affected by the news of Montgomery's death and the failure of the attack on Quebec. Early in 1776 he was able to take the field again, and his first care was to chastise the Tories who still continued troublesome. Then he hurried what supplies he could into Canada, where the situation of the patriot army was becoming very dangerous. Congress now sent a commission to Canada, consisting of Franklin, Chase, and Carroll. They were entertained at Albany by Schuyler. They found the situation discouraging, and saw that there was no hope of winning the support of the Canadian people. The invasion of Canada was abandoned. In spite of all the efforts he had made to overcome the indifference of Congress, and make the expedition a success, he was blamed as being the cause of its failure. There appears also to have been considerable personal opposition to him in Congress; many of the New England members disliked him on account of the part he had taken in the boundary disputes. He was superseded by General Gates in March, 1777. The New York Convention immediately chose him delegate to Congress, and he proceeded to Philadelphia and took his seat in that body. He at once demanded an investigation into his conduct, which was granted. While this was in progress he devoted himself with energy to the reorganization of the Commissary Department. The investigation resulted in his complete vindication, and he was restored to his command.

In June, 1777, information was received of the intended invasion of northern New York by Burgoyne, and Schuyler began to make preparations to meet him. The troops at his command were inadequate to cope with the approaching force of British and Germans, and the response to his calls for aid, was, as before, very feeble. The American outposts were forced back. Schuyler advanced to Stillwater, without waiting for reinforcements. Here he was met by the intelligence that Ticonderoga had fallen into the enemy's hands. Discouraged by this disaster, his men began to desert.

PHILIP SCHUYLER.

Washington was himself in a situation where he could afford him no aid. None could be obtained from Congress, where Schuyler's enemies were again active. There was no alternative but to retire before the enemy, which he did, contesting every inch of ground and placing every possible obstacle in the way of the advancing foe. He arrived at Saratoga on the last day of July. But meanwhile Burgoyne's own army was growing weaker. The defeat at the battle of Bennington and the obstinate resistance of Schuyler had made considerable inroads into the numbers of the enemy. Schuyler now began to see his way clear to strike a decisive blow, and, in order to secure a strong position for an attack, he fell back to the mouth of the Mohawk River. But just as he was about to reap the reward of his labors, he was again removed from the command and replaced by General Gates. Although deeply hurt, his patriotism prevented him from showing any resentment, and he continued to serve his country both in private and as Commissioner for Indian Affairs. He made every effort to obtain an inquiry into his conduct, but it was more than a year before a court-martial was appointed to consider his case. It finally met in October, 1778. He was tried on a charge of neglect of duty, and acquitted with the highest honor. He then resigned his commission, and his resignation was reluctantly accepted, April 19, 1779. He gave Gates such aid as that general was disposed to accept of, and continued to observe the movements of the army of the North, and to keep General Washington informed of the same.

In 1780 he was elected to the State Senate, and became a prominent member of that body. He was re-elected at various times, and held the office in all for the space of about thirteen years. As one of the Indian Commissioners, he performed valuable service in keeping the savages at bay. Northern New York was exposed to constant alarm from marauding expeditions by the Indians, incited by the British

PHILIP SCHUYLER.

in Canada. One such incursion took place in 1781, when Schuyler's house at Albany was plundered, and his family narrowly escaped with their lives. In 1783 he witnessed the closing act of the war, the evacuation of New York by the British, and its occupation by General Washington and the Patriot army.

He was in favor of a strong central government. In the Constitutional Convention of 1789, New York was represented by his talented son-in-law, Alexander Hamilton. He was the leader of the Federalist party in the State Senate, as Hamilton was in the House, and he warmly supported the adoption of the National Constitution. He was elected United States Senator in 1790, but, having drawn the short term, his seat became vacant March 4, 1791. He was a candidate for re-election, but for some reason, now unknown, he was defeated by Aaron Burr, although there was a Federalist majority in the New York Legislature. While a member of the New York Assembly he was active in promoting public works, and especially the construction of canals, for the benefit of the commerce and general welfare of his native State. He was again elected to the National Senate in 1797, but was unable long to retain his seat, owing to continued ill health. He resigned in January, 1798, and retired forever from public life. The loss of a daughter in 1801 and of his wife in 1803 were sources of deep sorrow, and the death of his son-in-law, Hamilton, in July, 1804, was a terrible blow, which he only survived a few months. He died November 18, 1804, at his home in Albany.





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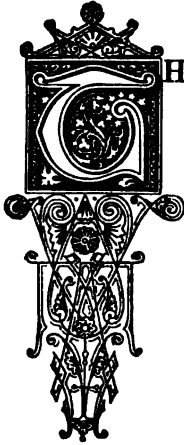


JOHN WEN
JOHN
WEN

DANIEL BOONE.

From a portrait by Thomas Sully [1783-1872]. By permission
of the owner, Frank M. Etting, of Philadelphia.

DANIEL BOONE.



HE pioneer of Kentucky was born near Bristol, Penn., February 11, 1734. His parents were Quaker farmers, unable to give their son more than those simple rudiments of learning which he received in the old log school-house. During his childhood his father twice removed the home, first to Reading, Penn., and afterwards to North Carolina. Daniel was thus reared in the wilderness and learned to love a life of adventure. He early became inured to hardship and notorious as a hunter.

At about the age of twenty he married, and settled, for a time, as a farmer; but he was dissatisfied with such a quiet life and longed to penetrate the unknown regions of the great western forests. He also desired to avoid the political excitement of the time which was distasteful to him. Actuated by these motives, he left his home in 1769, in company with five others, and spent the summer of that year in exploring what is now the State of Kentucky. They were charmed with the beauty and fruitfulness of the country. In December they established a camp and made ready for winter. But the savages looked with hatred on these invaders of their soil, and before spring every one of his companions had fallen at their hands. He had, however, been joined by a brother, who had brought him a supply of provisions. These two fearless men continued to explore the country until March, 1771, when they returned to their families in North Carolina.

DANIEL BOONE.

In the fall of 1773 the two brothers again set out for the newly discovered country. This time they were accompanied by their wives and children, and took with them cattle and all necessary supplies for a permanent settlement. They were joined by five other families, but the company was so terribly harassed by the Indians that the project was abandoned, and they halted at the settlements on the Clinch River, in Virginia. A number of the young men of the party had been killed, and among them was Boone's eldest son.

In 1774 Boone conducted a surveying party into Kentucky, to locate lands which had been granted to soldiers of the French and Indian War. This expedition, though it suffered severely from the attacks of the Indians, was very successful, and in view of the value of his services, Boone was appointed by Governor Dunmore to the command of three frontier garrisons.

Boone was next entrusted by Richard Henderson and his associates, who were known as the Transylvania Company, to make the preliminary arrangements for a settlement in Kentucky. At the head of a well-armed body of men, he again penetrated the forest, and having selected his site, proceeded to erect a fort, which, with the settlement which soon sprang up around it, received the name of Boonesboro'. Emigrants arrived rapidly, so that by April, 1775, there were four settlements in Kentucky. Boone was a member of the first Legislative Assembly. It met at Boonesboro', and organized a proprietary government under the name of the State of Transylvania. The new State was short lived, as Virginia claimed jurisdiction over the territory; but the new settlements continued to prosper. In September, Boone was joined by his family. The settlers soon began to encounter the hostility of the surrounding savage tribes. In July, 1776, one of Boone's daughters, together with two of her companions, was captured by a band of Indians. Boone,

DANIEL BOONE.

with eight followers, set out to rescue them, which they succeeded in doing, after killing two of their captors. The following winter was passed amid constant alarm. The Indians were now the allies of the British, and redoubled their efforts to crush out advancing civilization. Boonesboro' suffered several attacks from the British and Indians during the year 1777, but the settlers made a successful resistance. Reinforcements arrived, and a period of comparative quiet ensued.

In February, 1778, Boone was on a hunting expedition when he was surprised by a large force of Indians and made prisoner, together with a number of his companions. He wisely determined to make the best of the situation, and made friends with the Indians. He was taken first to Chillicothe, then an Indian town, and afterward to Detroit, where his captors expected to receive rewards from the British commander for their prisoners. Governor Hamilton ransomed his companions, but he could not prevail upon the savages to give up Boone, to whom they had become attached, though he made an offer of five hundred dollars for his release. He was taken back to Chillicothe, and, though closely watched, was given considerable liberty. He pretended to be satisfied with his new life, and so allayed the suspicions of the Indians. At last the opportunity for escape arrived. He was sent away with a party after salt, and advantage was taken of his ten days' absence to prepare for a general attack on Boonesboro'. June 16 he was allowed to leave the camp with his gun. He never returned. For five days he fled through the wilderness, with scarcely any food, and then he arrived at the fort, to find that his family had given him up for dead and had returned to North Carolina. Only a daughter remained, soon to be married to one of the settlers. His first care was to provide for the safety of the fort. But the Indians heard of his safe arrival, and gave up their proposed attack. Boone now assumed the offensive, and, at the head of

DANIEL BOONE.

a party of nineteen men, defeated the savages in a sharp encounter. In August a large force of Indians appeared before the fort, and demanded its surrender, in the name of King George. Boone obtained two days' respite for consideration. Then the garrison resolved to defend the fort to the death. The siege lasted nine days, at the end of which time the enemy abandoned their attempt, and the settlers remained victorious. At the close of the siege Boone returned to his family in North Carolina. Two years elapsed before they returned to Kentucky. The year 1781 was spent quietly at Boonesboro'. The next year that region was desolated by the ravages of a band of British and Indians commanded by a half-breed named Girty. The settlers, headed by Boone and others, marched against them, but were defeated with great loss at Blue Licks, August 20, 1782. In this battle, Boone lost another of his sons. Later in the year a large force was raised and the savages were severely punished, five of their villages being totally destroyed. Boone now enjoyed some years of peace, but at the time at which Kentucky became a State, 1792, he found himself defrauded of his property and in a destitute condition. He returned to Virginia, leaving Kentucky forever. In 1798 he and his wife again set out, in their old age, into the wilderness. They went to Missouri, then a Spanish possession, where one of their sons had preceded them. Boone was cordially received by the Spanish Governor, and presented with a large tract of land. In 1800 he was commissioned Commandant of the district in which he resided. He succeeded so well here that he was enabled to make a journey to Boonesboro' and pay all his debts there, taking his creditors' word for the amounts.

Missouri passed into the hands of the United States, and again Boone was landless. The new government would not recognize the validity of his title. He applied to the Legislature of Kentucky for aid, and that body instructed the Kentucky Senators in Congress to use their influence to pro-

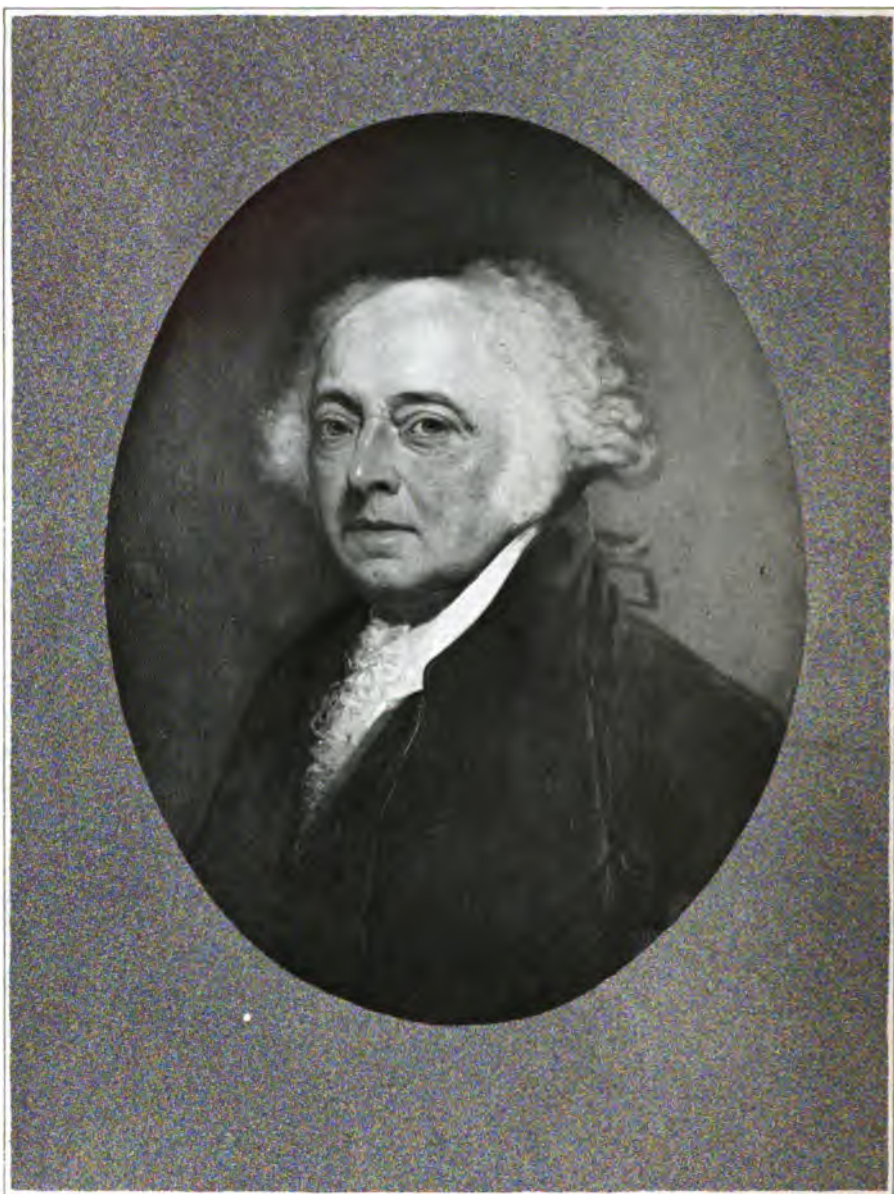
DANIEL BOONE.

cure a grant of land for the pioneer. At length, in 1814, Congress managed to spare him, out of all the immense public domain, a poor eight hundred acres. He retained his love for the chase to the last. At the age of eighty-two we find him, hunting, at a distance of a hundred miles from his home. He died in Flanders, Missouri, September 26, 1820. Twenty-five years later, his remains were transferred, with great ceremony, to Frankfort, Ky.





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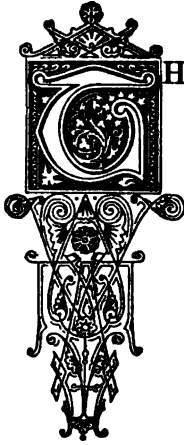


JOHN WEN
JUNIOR
YOUNG

JOHN ADAMS.

By Edgar Parker, after Gilbert Stuart. This portrait is the property of the Bostonian Society, by whose courtesy it is here reproduced.

JOHN ADAMS.



HIS most illustrious member, of that remarkable family which has furnished Massachusetts with so many public men, was born in Quincy, then a part of Braintree, October 30, 1735. He early became dissatisfied with the life of a farmer, and was sent to Harvard College, whence he graduated at the age of twenty. While deciding upon a profession, he supported himself by teaching. Agreeably to the wishes of his relatives, he first commenced the study of theology, but soon rejected the ministry for the bar, to which he was admitted in October, 1758. In 1764 he married Abigail Smith, who was highly esteemed in after years for her intellectual and moral endowments.

He was outspoken against the encroachments of British oppression. He had heard Otis, in 1761, deliver his argument against writs of assistance, and hailed it as the harbinger of American Independence, even while the great majority of the Colonists still remained content as British subjects, and only demanded the acknowledgment of their rights as subjects. The Stamp Act excitement brought him into public life. He became the leader of the opposition in Braintree, and drew up the instructions to their representative of the town in General Court. These instructions were copied and adopted by forty different towns. Although the closing of the courts, through the refusal of the people to use stamped paper, interfered seriously with his private business, yet he did not hesitate to

JOHN ADAMS.

argue the illegality of the Stamp Act, before the Governor. On this occasion he used the now famous argument, that "Taxation without representation is tyranny." He removed to Boston in 1768. He was offered the position of advocate-general to the admiralty court; but, considering this to be a bribe to win him to the King's side, he declined the preferment.

Although an ardent patriot, he was always ready to help those in trouble, and so, at the risk of incurring the popular censure, he appeared as counsel for the defence of Captain Preston, the British officer who was the leader in the Boston Massacre of 1770. He had just been elected to the General Court. He moved his residence to Braintree, in 1771, on account of failing health; but the next year found him back in Boston, where he had bought a house. He was by this time considered as the first lawyer in the province. In 1774 he was elected one of the delegates to the first Continental Congress. Very little was accomplished at this session beyond a general interchange of views by the representatives of the different Colonies, few of whom yet favored any legislation looking toward independence. After his return from Philadelphia, he entered the Provincial Assembly. During the following winter he was engaged in a notable newspaper controversy with the Tories, writing over the signature of Novanglus.

May 10, 1775, he again appeared in Philadelphia to attend Congress. He now found a marked increase of military spirit among the members. The war had begun, and all were in sympathy with the people of New England; but the majority were yet in favor of making some accommodation, and were quite willing to continue their allegiance to the Mother Country, if she would only cease her acts of oppression. Mr. Adams was annoyed to find how slowly men came to see, what he had seen clearly from the first, that the only remedy, for the existing troubles, was complete independence.

JOHN ADAMS.

After a long struggle he succeeded in bringing Congress to coincide with his views to the extent of adopting the army at Boston as their own, thus committing all the Colonies to the war. He wisely procured the election of Washington, a Virginian, as commander-in-chief, much to the chagrin of his colleague, Hancock, who himself expected to receive that mark of distinction. He was appointed chief justice of Massachusetts, but never took his seat on the bench, and soon resigned the office.

Mr. Adams continued to labor with indefatigable zeal, and by May, 1776, he had won a majority of Congress over to his side. Seven, at least, of the thirteen Colonies were now known to be in favor of entire separation from England. Shortly afterward, the immortal Committee of Five was arranged, to draw up the formal declaration. Of this document Jefferson was the author; but to Adams is due the credit of its adoption by the representatives of the widely differing sections of the country, each jealous of the other. His greatest service to the people of the United States was his defence of the Declaration of Independence, which was finally agreed to by all the Colonies July 4, 1776. He retired from Congress in November, 1777.

He was now appointed as one of the representatives of the Colonies at the French Court, his colleagues being Franklin and Lee. He found the affairs of the legation in disorder and set to work to institute reforms. But finding that the business could be dispatched to better advantage by a single envoy than it could be by three, who were not entirely in accord, he suggested that Congress should dispense with the two superfluous diplomats. So Lee went to Spain, Franklin remained at Paris, and nothing was left for Adams but to return home. He arrived at Boston August 2, 1779, having accomplished very little by his first foreign mission.

Having been elected to a seat in the Massachusetts Constitutional Convention, he began his labors in that body. Soon,

JOHN ADAMS.

nearly involved in war ; in fact, hostilities actually commenced upon the ocean. * The Treaty of Paris, September 30, 1800, put an end to the difficulties. What made the Adams administration especially unpopular, was the passage, in 1798, of the Alien and Sedition Acts. By the former of these the President could banish dangerous foreigners at his discretion, and the Sedition Act punished scandalous utterances against the government, or the person of the President. He also offended the leaders of his party by sending envoys to the Republican government of France, before he received proper assurances that they would be politely received.

Mr. Adams was much mortified by his defeat when a candidate for re-election in 1800. With him fell the Federal party, never again to be a factor in American politics. He left Washington early on the morning of March 4, 1801, being unwilling to participate in the inauguration of his successor, Mr. Jefferson. The remainder of his life was spent in dignified retirement at his home in Quincy. He lived to behold his son elevated to the same high office which he had himself filled.

It is a remarkable fact, that Adams and Jefferson, political opponents, but personal friends, both died on the same day, July 4, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of that Declaration of Independence, which was so peculiarly their own work.





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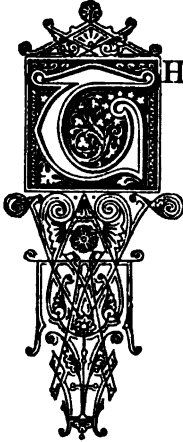


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PATRICK HENRY.

From an original by Sully in the possession of William Wirt
Henry, Esq., of Richmond., Va.

PATRICK HENRY.



HIS renowned patriot, statesman, and orator, was born May 29, 1736, at Studley, Va. His early education, which was superintended by his father, was somewhat superficial, but in later years, with increased opportunities, it became more extended. At the age of sixteen, having had a whole year's experience in a country store, he was set up in business by his father. He soon managed to lose all his money, and thus qualified for the duties of life, he took a wife as poor as himself, he being then of the mature age of eighteen. The parents of the young couple took pity on them, and furnished them with a farm and a few slaves. Dissatisfied with farming, he tried trade once more, and at the age of twenty-three was again bankrupt — with several small children.

In 1760, after reading law for a month, (this is his own statement; it seems like an exaggeration) he came to Williamsburg to apply for admission to the bar. Any way, he got his license to practise, engaging to make good by future study what he might already lack. And what is more, he was successful from the first. In 1763 he got a case that made him famous, and established his reputation upon a sound basis. The facts of the "Parsons' Cause" briefly are these. By an old Virginia statute, the salaries of the Church of England clergy were paid in tobacco; sixteen thousand pounds each parson got for his stipend. In 1758, there was a short crop, and the value of tobacco went up considerably. The Legislature passed an act commuting the salaries in

PATRICK HENRY.

money at about the old valuation. The ministers thought this unfair, since in years of great abundance, no allowance was made them for the depreciation in value which then naturally occurred. Worse still, the money which was offered them was a depreciated paper currency, good for nothing outside of Virginia. Several of the clergy brought suit in the courts to obtain their just dues; but the courts upheld the Legislature, and the people upheld the courts, justice or no justice. But soon the tables were turned, turned so hopelessly that all the old lawyers abandoned the business. The parsons carried their case across the water, and the Privy Council declared the two-penny act, as it was called, null and void. It was at this desperate juncture that Henry undertook the case against the clergy. His eloquence fairly electrified the jury. The question in the test case was the amount of damages due the minister for the loss of his pay. The jury brought in a verdict of a penny, and the populace, wild with joy, carried Henry from the court on their shoulders.

On the 22d of March, 1765, King George signed the Stamp Act and became insane. In the following May, Patrick Henry became a member of the Virginia Legislature. Thomas Jefferson, seven years his junior, was in the gallery when he made his first speech, a speech which commanded the admiration of the whole Assembly. It was upon some third-rate question,—the Speaker of the House a defaulter,—but such trifles were pushed aside by the appalling act of injustice committed by the home government. With unparalleled audacity, the stripling lawyer, on his twenty-ninth birthday, assumed the leadership of the Legislature, and introduced those immortal resolutions against the Stamp Act which set in motion the grand train of events which led up to the Declaration of Independence; and he followed them up with such magnificent eloquence, that in spite of the presence of a large number of loyal members—the old

PATRICK HENRY.

"barons of Virginia"—and in spite of their cries of "Treason," the resolutions were carried.

Now followed years of prosperity. He was the leader of the bar. He was the foremost member of the House of Burgesses. In 1771 he acquired a country-seat at Scotch Town, and became one of the landed gentry. But he ever remained true to the cause of liberty. Gradually the political troubles began to interfere with Court sessions, and his private business began to decrease; by 1774 it was entirely gone. His time now belonged to his country.

In 1774 he was sent to the first Continental Congress. The Virginia delegation carried with them a set of instructions, brimful of loyalty to their lawful sovereign, King George the Third. His majesty had only himself to blame for what he was pleased to call the rebellion of his American subjects. No record remains of the proceedings of this Congress, but from letters written at the time, it would appear that Henry had little hope of reconciliation with the mother country. We learn from the same source that he dazzled his colleagues with his eloquence, and left the Assembly with the reputation of being the first orator in America.

Before long, warlike preparations were in progress all over the thirteen Colonies,—preparations made by the sovereign people, and generally frowned upon by the official representatives of His Majesty. Patrick Henry was again at the front. In March, 1775, he introduced resolutions into the Virginia Convention for raising and equipping a militia. He was now committed, heart and soul, to the cause of independence. "After all, we must fight." The resolutions were carried, against the opposition of those who still hoped for some kind of accommodation. It was on this occasion that he made that wonderful speech which is to this day more familiar to Americans than any other ever made, closing with these words: "Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it,

PATRICK HENRY.

Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!"

Patrick Henry's military experience was but small. His place was in the Senate, not in the field; but he, nevertheless, had the honor of committing the first overt act of war in Virginia, and he held for some months the chief command of her forces. A quantity of gunpowder was stored at Williamsburg—the property of the Province; but Governor Dunmore thought it belonged to the King, and had it put on board one of his Majesty's vessels for better security against the "rebels." To the horror of the Tories, but to the delight of the friends of liberty, Patrick Henry called together the militia of his county, and marched towards Williamsburg to demand the restoration of the powder. Clear Treason! The gubernatorial household fled at his approach to a safe shelter, from whence negotiations were carried on, and on the 4th of May, 1775, Henry accepted, in trust for the Colony, £330 "as a compensation for the gunpowder." He then returned home amid the applause of his fellow-citizens. When he was safely out of the way, His Excellency emerged from his retreat, and issued a proclamation warning all persons against aiding and abetting "a certain Patrick Henry" in his "outrageous and rebellious practices"—"God Save the King!" Henry became commander-in-chief of the Virginia forces August 28, 1775, and resigned his commission in the following February. In the meantime his wife had died, leaving him with six children.

Patrick Henry was a conscientious member of the Church of England. Yet in the Virginia Convention of 1776, he formulated the sixteenth article of the declaration of rights, granting full religious liberty. Up to this time all forms of religion except the Episcopalian might be legally suppressed by force. This same convention completed the severance of Virginia from her allegiance to the British Crown, and

PATRICK HENRY.

established a constitution for the new State. It was adopted June 29, and on the same day Patrick Henry was elected governor. He was inaugurated July 5, one day after the United Colonies had declared themselves free and independent States. He at once took up his abode in Governor Dunmore's vacant palace. He was active in aiding Washington and the Continental Army during the dark days of the Revolution, for which purpose he was invested with extraordinary powers by the General Assembly of Virginia. He was re-elected governor by that body on his forty-first birthday. His second marriage took place October 9, 1777. During his second year as governor occurred the famous Conspiracy against Washington, which is known in history as the "Conway Cabal," from the name of one of the over-ambitious officers who concocted the scheme. Among the people of influence whom they tried to interest in their miserable business was Governor Henry. A letter reached him—a cowardly letter with no signature—covertly suggesting Gates as the proper man to replace Washington. Henry indignantly refused to commit the letter to the flames, as the writer desired, and immediately forwarded it to General Washington. He always remained an ardent admirer and true friend of the illustrious Commander-in-chief.

He was elected a third time, and retired from office in June, 1779, being succeeded by Thomas Jefferson. During his third term as governor, he was called upon to provide for the defence of the State against a British invasion. The enemy created great havoc along the sea-coast, and destroyed several towns. He now retired to his new estate of Leatherwood, declining an election to Congress. Before long he was elected to the Virginia House of Delegates, and was a member of that body while it showed its heels in a somewhat undignified manner to Colonel Tarleton, who had been sent by Cornwallis to effect its capture while in session at Charlottesville.

PATRICK HENRY.

He was again governor of Virginia for two successive terms, from November, 1784, to November, 1786. During these years he resided near Richmond, the new State capital, his children and grandchildren with him, and sustained the dignity of his office at an expense so far exceeding his salary, that, at his final retirement, he resumed the practice of the law in order to repair his fortune. It is pleasing to know that he met with abundant success, and was enabled to retire, in 1794, at the age of fifty-eight. The following year he established himself at Red Hill, which continued to be his home for the remainder of his life. During these years he was offered many cabinet and diplomatic offices, as well as that of Chief Justice of the United States, all of which he refused, as he did the governorship, when offered him for the sixth time.

But while declining further executive office, his voice was still heard in debate. He served four years in the Legislature, entering it shortly after he left the governor's chair, and he gave a reluctant consent to the Constitution of the United States, after it had been adopted against his opposition. He used his influence against it so powerfully in the ratifying convention, that Madison, who was its chief defender, only succeeded in getting it adopted by the narrow majority of ten voices. It was largely owing to his indirect influence that Congress agreed to the first ten Amendments to the Constitution, to allay the fears of the anti-Federalists, who were alarmed at the apparent curtailment of the rights of individual States.

Mr. Henry did not use intoxicants, held tobacco in abhorrence, at least in his later years, and though all his life a slave-holder, he regretted the existence of the system of African Slavery. He died at his home at Red Hill, June 6, 1799. It is generally conceded that his equal as an orator has never since appeared in our country.



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JOHN HANCOCK.

Portrait by Copley. Boston Art Museum.

JOHN HANCOCK.



THE old North Precinct of Braintree, Mass., now the city of Quincy, was the birth-place of two of the signers of the Declaration of Independence: John Adams, its most eloquent advocate, and John Hancock, who first affixed to it his signature, written in the bold hand which has become so familiar. The latter gentleman was born January 12, 1737, less than two years after his illustrious colleague. Only very meagre accounts of his childhood and youth have come down to us, which would probably indicate that he gave no special promise in his early days of those talents by which he was able, aided by his vast wealth, to raise himself so high in the estimation of his fellow-citizens. He did not inherit his property from his father, who was a clergyman, as was also his grandfather, but from an uncle, by whom he was fortunately adopted when left an orphan in early childhood. After graduating at Harvard in 1754, he entered the counting-room of his uncle, the richest merchant of New England, and soon developed an aptitude for business which rendered him a worthy successor to his wealthy relative. In 1760 he visited England, where his natural fondness for pomp and display was gratified by two splendid ceremonies: the funeral of old King George the Second, and the coronation of his youthful grandson, little thinking then that the young monarch, whom he probably cheered as loyally as any Englishman of them all, would one day set a price upon

JOHN HANCOCK.

his head. Mr. Hancock was well fitted, by his careful commercial training and his foreign travel, to become a servant of the public, and it was, therefore, very proper that his ambition for distinction should be gratified. Shortly after his return from Europe, he was elected one of the selectmen of the town of Boston, and he frequently acted as Moderator in the town meetings, and so became well versed in political matters. When, at the age of twenty-seven, he came, by the death of his uncle, into the possession of the most extensive fortune in the Province, it was a matter of course that he should be courted by all parties. It was already apparent that trouble was brewing between the mother-country and the colonies, and John Hancock's influence would be of the utmost importance to the side to which it should be given. Nearly all of his natural associates, among the wealthy and aristocratic classes in Boston, favored the Tories and the existing order. Either from policy, or from principle, John Hancock decided to espouse the cause of the liberties of his country, and in spite of the assertions of some of his more democratic enemies to the contrary, there is no good reason for believing that in making this decision he was influenced by any but the purest motives of patriotism.

In 1766 he was elected a member of the Boston delegation to the Massachusetts General Court. In reference to this action by the citizens, the far-seeing John Adams declared to Samuel Adams, who was one of Hancock's colleagues, that it was dictated by the most profound political wisdom, since it essentially put Hancock's fortune at the disposal of his country. He was, indeed, lavish with his money, both in furthering the public welfare, and in gratifying his own expensive tastes. He was a very high liver, fond of display in matters of dress, and appeared in public on state occasions in a chariot and six, with servants in gorgeous livery. In this same year, 1766, during the rejoicings in Boston at the repeal of the Stamp Act, he

JOHN HANCOCK.

broached a pipe of wine for the populace in front of his mansion on Beacon Street — that mansion which was torn down by vandal hands within the memory of men yet young. He also provided the means to empty the debtors' prison on that same joyful occasion. The popularity gained by such acts as these, and by his wise course in the Legislature, could never be seriously undermined by the attacks of those who misrepresented his motives. Two years later, when, in resistance to the oppression and unjust exactions of the customs officers, he landed a cargo of wines from his sloop "Liberty," without the usual formalities, the people made common cause with him, and violently opposed the officers who were sent to seize the sloop. Failing to prevent the seizure, the populace became unruly, attacked the odious Custom-House officials, burned the Collector's boat on the Common, pulled down a house or two, and made a bad time of it generally. When the news of the affair reached England, it was seriously proposed in Parliament to have Hancock, and other prominent citizens, transported to England for trial and punishment.

In August, 1768, John Hancock and many other Boston merchants formed a league, and agreed to import no more merchandise from England until Parliament should cease taxing the Colonists against their consent. It was soon afterwards discovered that preparations were being made for quartering a large body of royal troops in the town, and Hancock, with Otis and the two Adamses, was deputed to protest against such a measure before Governor Bernard. That functionary thought proper to attempt to bribe this committee. We have already seen that John Adams refused to be seduced from his duty by the offer of a lucrative office. John Hancock, although his heart was fixed upon obtaining high official rank, spurned it with indignation when offered as the price of treason. The Governor's blandishments failed equally with the wealthy

JOHN HANCOCK.

merchant, and with Samuel Adams, the poor, but inflexible patriot.

As is well known, the troops arrived; then the custom house officers, safe from the resentment of the mob, prosecuted Hancock for violation of the revenue laws; but he was defended by John Adams, and acquitted. Among the few merchants of Boston who persisted in importing and selling tea, were two sons of Thomas Hutchinson, now acting governor, the perfidious Bernard having been removed. A meeting of the patriotic dealers having been convened to consider the case, Hutchinson sent the sheriff to order them to disperse; but a letter from the meeting, written by John Hancock, convinced His Honor that it would be unwise to exasperate the people any further. A few months later, in March, 1770, occurred the memorable massacre in King Street; and at the funeral of the victims John Hancock delivered an eloquent oration, in terms which put an end to all hopes which the Government might have entertained of winning him away from the popular side. He and Sam. Adams were henceforth held chiefly responsible by the British Ministry for the open acts of defiance to the imperial authority. These two men represented two distinct classes of the people; Adams, the middle, or working class; and Hancock, the aristocracy of wealth; but, although their personal relations may not have been the most cordial, yet each labored zealously, in his own way, to promote the same glorious cause.

At the Tea Party, in 1773, John Hancock was one of the guard which preserved order, and prevented interference with those patriots who were entrusted with the duty of putting the cargo of tea to steep in Boston Harbor. In the following year he delivered the memorial address on the fifth of March, and was soon afterward degraded from the command of the Cadets, or Governor's Body Guard; whereupon the Guard instantly disbanded.

JOHN HANCOCK.

In the same year he was chosen a member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress, and in October became its President. In 1775, he was elected to the second Continental Congress, and held a seat in that body for the five succeeding years. In the interval between the adjournment of the Massachusetts Congress, on April 15, and his departure for Philadelphia, he stopped at Lexington, in company with Sam. Adams; and one of the objects of the British troops in their march to Concord, on the 19th, was to effect the capture of these two gentlemen; but, having received timely warning from Dr. Joseph Warren, they were already on their southward journey when the fatal morning dawned.

Congress met in May, and Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was chosen President; but he shortly afterward resigned the office, and was succeeded by John Hancock, whose election to this exalted position was a special defiance to the British Government, as he was now an outlaw, expressly excluded from the royal clemency. His conduct as a presiding officer was in every way satisfactory. It is supposed that his personal vanity was injured by the choice of Washington as Commander of the Continental Army, a position which he considered himself well fitted to hold; but it must be admitted that Hancock's military abilities were of no very high order. In 1776 he was commissioned Major-General of the militia, and commanded the Massachusetts contingent in the unsuccessful expedition against Rhode Island, under General Sullivan, in 1778. After the discomfiture of the French fleet, Hancock lost heart, and, against the earnest protests of General Sullivan, he returned, in his carriage, somewhat hastily, to Boston. His example was soon followed by all the New England volunteers, and Sullivan was forced to retreat and leave the British in possession. Hancock was married to Dorothy Quincy in September, 1775, but left no lineal descendants,

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his only son by this marriage dying young. He resigned the Presidency of Congress in October, 1777.

Mr. Hancock was a member of the Convention of 1779, which framed the present government of Massachusetts, taking a prominent part in its debates, and in the following year he was elected first Governor of the Commonwealth under the Constitution. That he had a firm hold upon the affections of the people is evident from the fact of his continued reelection, year after year, in spite of his strong self-will and the decidedly aristocratic tendencies of his administration. No subsequent governor has held the executive chair as long as John Hancock. He declined election in 1785, and passed two years in retirement, during which time Governor Bowdoin put down Shays' Rebellion with a strong hand. He again accepted the Chief Magistracy in 1787, and continued to hold the office during the remainder of his life. Owing to his luxurious habits, he grew old before his time; and when he should have been in his prime, we find him tortured with the gout, weak, and peevish.

Of his excessive vanity many stories have been told. After the close of the war, he was requested by Congress to despatch an agent to accept the surrender of the British posts on the Penobscot, in accordance with the treaty. He actually proposed going himself, in state, to perform this simple duty with great military display; but the suspicion that the enemy might be tempted to capture a person of such high importance, caused him to delay until the British officer, tired of waiting, burned his stores, and retired.

His undue sense of his own importance received a severe rebuke from President Washington, upon the occasion of the latter's visit to Boston in 1789. Considering himself almost as a sovereign in his own territory, the Governor demanded that the President should make the

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first call. Washington, with an equal, and more justifiable sense of the dignity of his own office, refused to comply. The Governor, instead of accompanying the troops by whom Washington was received at the town boundary, obstinately shut himself up at home, and the President, after two hours of exposure to an October wind, while vainly waiting for Hancock, was conducted to his lodgings, declining to accept an invitation to the Governor's banquet. Hancock was, however, brought to see the folly of his conduct, and yielded. On the following day, which was Sunday, excusing himself for his discourtesy on a plea of severe illness, he was driven to Washington's lodgings, his legs swathed in red flannel, and was carried into the august presence in the arms of servants. The ice was thus broken, and Washington took tea on the same day, very pleasantly, with Governor and Lady Hancock.

Governor Hancock was President of the Convention which ratified the Constitution of the United States, in 1789. Like Adams, his assent to that instrument was conditional. Had it been withheld the Constitution would have been rejected by the Convention, and this action by Massachusetts would, probably, have defeated the consummation of Union. His death occurred at his country seat at Quincy, October 8, 1793, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, and during his twelfth term as Governor of Massachusetts.





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JOSEPH WARREN.

From an original by Copley, now owned by J. Collins Warren,
M. D., of Boston.

JOSEPH WARREN.



JOSEPH WARREN, born in Roxbury, Massachusetts, June 11, 1741, was educated in the public schools and at Harvard College, and was noted among his youthful companions for his frankness, his gentle manners, and his superior talents. These admirable qualities he retained throughout his short but useful life. He graduated in 1760, and after a year spent in teaching in his native town, he decided to adopt the profession of medicine. After the proper course of study, he commenced practice in Boston at the age of twenty-three, and at about the same time he was married. Although he gained an excellent reputation as a physician, so that on the breaking out of the Revolution he was selected as Surgeon General by the Massachusetts authorities, yet he was led by his intense spirit of patriotism to devote most of his time to politics and public affairs. In that hot-bed of rebellion against tyranny, the Boston town meeting, he was active on the popular side.

He first came prominently into notice through his 5th of March oration in 1772, on the occasion of the anniversary of the Boston massacre, and in November of the same year he became a member of the famous Committee of Correspondence. In the following April his wife died, leaving him four children, soon to become penniless orphans. Although he does not appear to have been one of the disguised party which destroyed the obnoxious cargoes of tea in Boston

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Harbor, in December, 1773, he was named in the instructions received by Governor Gage from the British Government, as one of the leaders in the so-called disorders, who were to be transported for trial and punishment. He was the author of that statement of grievances, known in history as the "Suffolk Resolves," and was a member of the Provincial Congress which was formed by the patriots after the last General Court of Massachusetts under the old charter was dissolved by the Royal Governor, in 1774.

He delivered his second and more celebrated anniversary address in the Old South Meeting House, Boston, March 6, 1775, in which he fearlessly attacked the iniquitous measures of Lord North's government and the excesses of the troops in Boston, although there was present in the audience a large number of the officers of the garrison. Having received secret information of the intended British raid on Concord, Warren planned the "ride" of warning which has made the name of Paul Revere famous, and on the memorable 19th of April he was present in person on the field, encouraging the "embattled farmers" in their resistance to the usurpations of royal authority, and was struck by one of the musket-balls of the enemy, as they were making their way back to Boston after their ill-planned expedition. He was chosen president of the Provincial Congress on the last day of May, and in the absence of John Hancock was acting chairman of the Committee of Safety. By virtue of the power which he exercised through these offices he was, in all but name, Governor of the State. He was present at two skirmishes with the British troops during the month of May, never courting distinction, but eager to do anything that lay in his power to further the common cause.

By the middle of June, 1775, fifteen thousand undisciplined troops were gathered around Boston. Warren, having declined the appointment of Surgeon General, was commissioned a Major General. While Putnam and Prescott

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urged the occupation of Charlestown heights, to prevent the British from gaining possession of them, Warren was opposed to the plan on account of the scarcity of powder in the patriot army; but his judgment was overruled. On the morning of the eventful 17th, Warren attended a meeting of the Committee of Safety, and then, in spite of the remonstrances of friends, who considered his life too valuable to be risked in battle, he mounted his horse and rode to Charlestown, arriving on the field just as the battle was about to begin. Both Prescott and Putnam immediately offered to take their orders from him, as being their superior in rank, but he declined to interfere with their arrangements, telling them that he had no orders to give, and only asking to be sent, as a volunteer, where the action would be the hottest. During the battle he bore himself with great bravery. When the Americans were obliged, through lack of ammunition, to succumb to the third attack of the enemy, Warren was among the last to reluctantly obey the order to retreat. Being well known among the British officers, one of them called upon him by name to surrender, at the same time ordering his men to cease firing. But it was too late. As Warren turned to reply, a ball struck him in the head, killing him instantly. Thus was closed, suddenly and prematurely, the career of this pure patriot. His remains were temporarily interred where he fell, but were subsequently removed to Boston.





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THOMAS JEFFERSON.

From an original by Stuart in the private gallery of
T. Jefferson Coolidge, Esq., of Boston

THOMAS JEFFERSON.



THE author of the Declaration of Independence was born at Shadwell, Va., April 13, 1743. His father was a prosperous farmer and provided private tuition for his son in the classics, which prepared him to enter an advanced class at William and Mary College. He graduated in 1762, being only nineteen, studied law and began practice in 1767. He was not eloquent, but his learning and power of application opened to him a highway to success in his profession, the income which he obtained adding largely to his inherited wealth, so that the breaking out of the Revolution found him the master of five thousand acres. He was elected to the Provincial House of Burgesses in 1768, and held his seat in that body as long as it continued to exist. Having erected and beautified the mansion at Monticello, which was thenceforth to remain his home, he married, January 1, 1772, Mrs. Martha Skelton.

These were years of conflict between the representatives of the people and the representatives of royalty. In Virginia, as elsewhere, resolves in favor of the liberty of the subject passed the Legislature, and the Legislature was dissolved by the Governor in high dudgeon. In all this agitation, Jefferson was in the forefront, acting with the "young men." He entered Congress June 21, 1775, being one of the young-

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est of the members. Here, and in his subsequent legislative career, his pen, rather than his tongue, was the instrument of his service to his fellow-countrymen. The glorious Declaration of Independence, signed July 4, 1776, stands, with few eliminations and fewer additions, substantially as written by Thomas Jefferson. He declined election to the Congress of 1776, and the next few years of his public life were spent in the House of Burgesses of the State of Virginia. Here he did yeoman service for liberty. He introduced the bill abolishing entail and the rights of primogeniture, so breaking down the old Virginia Aristocracy. He also labored for religious toleration and free schools. Although he did not emancipate his own slaves, he regarded slavery as an evil, and endeavored to provide for its gradual extinction, but in this he was unsuccessful. He did, however, carry through a law for the suppression of the importation of negroes.

Thomas Jefferson was elected Governor of Virginia in 1779. He has been charged with incompetency in this office. He certainly did make a most woful figure when fleeing, as did also the honorable Assembly, before Tarleton's raiders. He returned to private life in 1781, irritated by a temporary loss of popularity, and imbued with an everlasting hatred of everything English. He was deeply afflicted by the death of his wife in 1782. She left him three children, one an infant, who died two years later. Of the other two, both daughters, one, Martha Randolph, survived him. He entered Congress again in 1783. In the following year he was appointed to aid Franklin and Adams in negotiating treaties of commerce.

Accompanied by his daughter Martha, he sailed for Europe in July, 1784. He placed his daughter at school, and established himself luxuriously at Paris. He was appointed minister resident to the French Court upon the retirement of Franklin in 1785. His stay in France lasted until September, 1789, and contributed largely toward the increase of his

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extremely Democratic opinions, and his partiality toward the French people.

Washington was now President of the United States, and Jefferson became his Secretary of State in March, 1790. He was, however, opposed to many of the measures of the administration, and resigned his seat in the cabinet on the last day of the year 1793. He became the leader of the opposition to the Federal Party, then in power, and was one of the prime movers in the formation of the Republican, afterward called the Democratic Party. For Hamilton, the leader of the Federalists, he entertained an extreme aversion.

He was a candidate for the presidency in 1796. Although defeated, the dissensions in the Federal Party resulted in his obtaining within three votes of the number received by Mr. Adams, and he, accordingly, became Vice-President of the United States, March 4, 1797.

In the presidential election of 1800, Jefferson and Burr each received an equal number of electoral votes, and upon a Federalist House of Representatives devolved the somewhat disagreeable duty of making choice between two Democrats for President. The majority of the Federalists naturally preferred Burr, but the election went to Jefferson, through the influence of Hamilton, who thereby rendered service of inestimable value to his country, although, at the same time, he added another link to the chain which was drawing him to his own doom.

Mr. Jefferson's first inauguration as President took place March 4, 1801. In accordance with his extreme Democratic principles, there was an almost entire absence of the ceremony which had hitherto been observed on such occasions. Some of the leading events of his first administration were the admission of Ohio into the Union, the purchase of Louisiana, the brilliant exploits of Decatur in Tripoli, and the tragic death of Hamilton. The most important of these, the purchase of Louisiana from France in 1803, was pecul-

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ially Jefferson's own work. He had long considered that any foreign nation who might hold New Orleans, and thereby command the navigation of the Mississippi, would inevitably become the enemy of the United States. Accordingly, he made overtures to the French government, at first only for the purchase of the city and its suburbs; but Napoleon offered the entire territory from Texas to Canada and from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains for the sum of fifteen million dollars. His terms were accepted, and these magnificent possessions were transferred to the United States. The proceeding was severely criticised at the time, but its wisdom has since been abundantly proved.

Mr. Jefferson was no exception to the general rule among American statesmen who advocate only one term of office—he accepted a second. He received one hundred and sixty-two electoral votes, while his Federalist opponent, Mr. Pinckney, received only fourteen. His second administration was marked by the commencement of those hostilities with Great Britain which led to the second war with that country, and by the treason of Aaron Burr. He favored the policy of the embargo, by which all American vessels were prohibited from trading with foreign countries, as a retaliation for those acts by which England and France, in their mutual animosity, had so nearly destroyed American commerce. The measure was very unpopular in New England, and the opposition to it rendered the closing years of his term somewhat vexatious to him. He declined a third nomination, and retired to private life upon the inauguration of Mr. Madison in 1809.

His long career of forty years and over was of inestimable benefit to his fellow-countrymen; but while it gained him a lasting fame, it was also attended with many hardships. The greater part of his property was lost to him, and he suffered still more by the loss of his wife and daughters. His seventeen years of retirement at Monticello were years of

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comparative poverty. Mr. Jefferson is also to be remembered as the founder of the University of Virginia, which was his constant care during the greater part of the seven closing years of his life. He died at his home, July 4, 1826, on the same day with John Adams. Posterity has long since forgotten or forgiven his partisan leadership, and he is remembered and honored as a true American Patriot.





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JOHN JAY.

Portrait by S. F. B. Morse. In the Yale College Collection.

JOHN JAY.



JOHN JAY was born in New York City, December 12, 1745. He was the son of a retired merchant of means. His mother taught him the rudiments of English and Latin, and then he was sent to New Rochelle, N. Y., where he was prepared for college and acquired a good knowledge of French. He graduated from King's College in 1764, studied law, was admitted to the bar, succeeded well in his profession, and was married, in 1774, to Sarah Livingston. Twenty-nine uneventful years had produced a quiet, refined gentleman,—an “eminent barrister.”

As a member of the first Continental Congress in 1774, the duty devolved upon him of writing the Address to the People of Great Britain. This Congress recommended that no goods be imported from England, and Jay was one of a committee of sixty to enforce the recommendation in New York. In 1775, he drafted the “Address to the People of Canada,” and the “Address to the King,” the rejection of which left no alternative for Congress but the adoption of measures for separation from the mother country. He left his seat in Congress in May, 1776, to become a member of the New York Provincial Legislature, and after New York City fell into the hands of the British, he was appointed on the Secret Military Committee, charged with the duty of collecting men and stores for the purpose of harassing the enemy. Subsequently he was on a committee for “inquiring into conspiracies.” The labors of this committee were

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directed against the Tories, and numbers of them were banished from the State or imprisoned; among them, some of his own friends and connections.

John Jay was the author of the Constitution of the State of New York, which went into force April 22, 1777. He was one of the Council of Safety which administered the government until a Legislature could be elected under the new Constitution. Then, declining the office of Governor, he was appointed Chief Justice. His private residence at this time was at Fishkill. Here he retired for a short rest in the fall of 1778, and, for a time, entertained General Washington. The Legislature now chose him a member of Congress, charging him specially with the duty of securing, if possible, an adjustment of the long-standing disputes between New York and Vermont. On the resignation of Laurens, he was elected President of the Congress. Like many others of the Revolutionary patriots, Jay's public service was unprofitable to him in a pecuniary sense, and he now felt the necessity of attending more closely to his private affairs. Accordingly, he resigned both of his offices, and enjoyed another short season of rest.

He was appointed by Congress as Minister to Spain, and, accompanied by his wife, he sailed for Europe October 20, 1779. The voyage was so lengthened by storms and the watchfulness of British men-of-war that he did not arrive at Cadiz until the following January. He remained in Spain something more than two years, but was unable to obtain recognition from the government. He was greatly embarrassed during this time by lack of money, and was glad enough to answer a summons to co-operate with Franklin in Paris, where he arrived in June, 1782. Jay, Franklin, and Laurens were joined in the commission to treat for peace with Mr. Adams. In the long series of negotiations which followed, Mr. Jay bore a very important part. He distrusted the friendship of France, and so acted as an offset to

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Franklin, who was, perhaps, too friendly to that power. Probably Jay influenced the signing of the preliminary treaty, November 30, 1782, without the knowledge of the French Government. Of the final treaty of 1783, Mr. Adams says: "The principal merit of the negotiation was Mr. Jay's." In spite of French opposition, the free navigation of the Mississippi was secured, for the benefit of the Southern Colonies, while the acknowledgment of the rights of Americans to the Newfoundland fisheries, gained for Mr. Jay the enthusiastic encomiums of New England. His family was now established near Paris, in the neighborhood of Dr. Franklin's residence, while he himself went to England, to recruit his health at Bath. After a few months spent here, in good company, he returned to Paris. He was now ready and anxious to return to America. Leaving the brilliant city, with his family he arrived in New York July 24, 1784, and was received by the citizens with distinguished honors.

He again declined to be a candidate for the governorship, and was sent to Congress. In December he accepted the position of Secretary for Foreign Affairs, which office he held until 1790, when the new government had been formed.

The project for a strong central government had Mr. Jay's hearty support from the outset. The weakness of the Confederation of States was now very apparent. During the years 1787 and 1788 appeared the famous series of eighty-five essays known in their collective form as "The Federalist." This work was due to the joint authorship of Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, and was largely influential in convincing the public mind of the superiority of a Union over a League of independent States. Yet, when the New York Convention met at Poughkeepsie to consider the question of ratifying the Constitution, only eleven out of the fifty-seven delegates were favorable to it. But by their unanswerable arguments Jay and Hamilton succeeded, after a

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discussion of forty days, in obtaining a majority of three for ratification.

President Washington gave Jay his choice of offices, and he accepted that of Chief Justice of the United States. Webster said of him, years afterwards, that "when the spotless ermine of the judicial robe fell on John Jay, it fell on nothing less spotless than itself." The Supreme Court was organized February 2, 1790, at New York. While on his first circuit, Chief Justice Jay received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard, having previously received the same honor from Dublin, just after the Treaty of Peace.

In 1792 he was elected Governor of New York over Clinton, who had filled the office for fifteen years. Owing to some slight mistake in the manner of transmitting the returns from one or two counties, he was promptly counted out by the Anti-Federalist returning board. People who sigh over the corruptions of our later age will see, from this, that after all there is nothing new under the American political sun. .

The relations between England and this country now became greatly strained, owing to the disastrous effects upon American commerce, resulting from the policy of the former government. The popular feeling was strongly in favor of war; but President Washington had the wisdom to see that this country was totally unprepared to cope with so powerful an antagonist. He therefore selected Jay, as a careful and prudent man, for the important post of Special Envoy to England, to arrange the difficulties. He accepted the mission, well knowing that it would raise up for him a host of enemies. He arrived in England, June 8, 1794, and "Jay's Treaty" was signed November 19th. Its terms were considered so favorable to England, that a storm of abuse was showered upon the really patriotic envoy who negotiated it. He was burned in effigy in some places. Hamilton was stoned while attempting to speak in his defence. But, conscious that he had obtained the best terms possible, and had averted

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a war from his countrymen, he remained unmoved. While in England he made many pleasant acquaintances with people of distinction. He arrived home May 28, 1795, to find that, in spite of the noisy Republican opposition, he had been elected Governor of New York.

Shortly after he assumed the office of Governor, the yellow fever broke out in New York with great violence. Jay insisted upon remaining at his post, and did all in his power to prevent the spread of the contagion. Singularly enough he was censured by his enemies, the Anti-Federalists, for exceeding his authority, when he issued a proclamation for a Thanksgiving, after the cessation of the plague. He was re-elected Governor in 1798. At the close of this term, in 1801, he was offered a reappointment as Chief Justice by President Adams, but, preferring retirement, he declined the honor. Thus ended John Jay's public life, in its purity second to none in the history of our country. His remaining twenty-eight years were spent in the comfortable enjoyment of life on his farm at Bedford, N. Y. He kept himself aloof from party strife, while fulfilling all the duties of a good citizen. He died May 17, 1829, the last remaining member of the First Continental Congress.





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JAMES MADISON.

From the Stuart portrait, now in the possession of T. Jefferson
Coolidge, of Boston.

JAMES MADISON.



JAMES MADISON, the "Father of the Constitution," was born at Port Conway, Va., March 16, 1751. The son of a rich planter, he was reared amid surroundings of wealth and refinement. He was prepared for college partly at school and partly by a private tutor, and entered Princeton in 1769. After his graduation in 1771, he seems to have spent some time in the study of theology, either for his own gratification, or with a view of entering the ministry. Not being hampered with the necessity of caring for his own livelihood, he was enabled to devote his time and attention to the welfare of his country. He entered manhood in the midst of those troublous times "which tried men's souls." At the age of twenty-three he was serving on the committee of safety of his county. In 1776 he was delegate in the Virginia Convention, and interested himself particularly in the passage of the religious toleration article in the Bill of Rights. Then he was elected to the Assembly—and the following year failed of re-election because he tried to introduce too sweeping a reform into the methods of voting then in vogue. It was customary for a candidate to stand at the polls and serve out punch to his constituents, and to thank them personally and individually as they gave their votes for him. Madison thought he could afford to defy this time-honored custom; but he was mistaken. The assembly made him one of the governor's council, and in 1780 he went to Congress, where

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he remained three years. In 1784 he was again chosen to the legislature of Virginia, and was now regarded as one of the most conspicuous citizens of his State. Here he likewise served three years, and in 1787 returned to the Continental Congress.

Mr. Madison was foremost among those far-seeing statesmen who sought to give more stability to the general government than was possible under the old Confederation. It was evident that measures must be promptly taken, or the country would fall into a condition of anarchy. He did not share with the majority of the citizens of Virginia that extreme jealousy for the rights of the individual States, but realized that it was necessary for the general welfare that the power of the Federal government must be largely increased. It was with that idea uppermost in his mind that he entered the Constitutional Convention, in which his influence, in deciding the form finally taken by the Constitution, was greater than that of any other member. After the Convention finished its work, the task still lay before him of persuading his fellow citizens to adopt it. To this task he bent all his energies. He was one of the joint authors of the *Federalist*. Perhaps the best proof of the strength of his argument lies in the fact that he was able to carry the Constitution in the Virginia Convention against the mighty opposition of Patrick Henry.

Patrick Henry prevented Madison's election to the United States Senate; but the people of his district elected him to the House of Representatives over Mr. Monroe. While a member of the first national congress, Mr. Madison changed his political views. Just why this was, does not appear entirely clear — but certain it is that he entered Congress a *Federalist*, gradually fell into opposition to the policy of the administration until he became the leader of that opposition, and finally left Congress, in 1797, a Democrat. He was married in 1794 to Mrs. Todd. Mrs. Madison became one

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of the most distinguished of those ladies who have filled the position of Mistress of the White House.

Mr. Madison now remained in partial retirement for four years at his home in Montpelier, Va. He took an active interest in the political discussions of the time, and aided the Democrats with his pen. He had his share in bringing about the final downfall of the old Federalist party, and when the Republicans, or Democrats came into power in 1801, Mr. Jefferson rewarded him with the office of Secretary of State. This position he held for eight years with ability. Under most of the presidents he would have made a brilliant cabinet officer; but Mr. Jefferson emphatically shaped the policy of his own administration, and left for his advisers little more than the duty of putting his commands into execution. Mr. Jefferson declined a third election, but determined that his policy should be carried on after his retirement substantially as it had been while he himself held the reins of power. He consequently dictated to his party the nomination of Mr. Madison as his successor in the Presidency. That party being again successful in the election of 1808, Mr. Madison was inaugurated President of the United States, March 4, 1809. He served two terms as chief executive of the nation, being re-elected in 1812, in the midst of the second war with Great Britain.

Mr. Madison, probably influenced by some lingering recollections of his old affiliation with the Federalists, was not so embittered against England as Mr. Jefferson had been, and was rather more inclined to preserve peace. But the Republican leaders demanded war, and he was forced to submit. The war party was largely augmented by the continued acts of aggression by British men-of-war upon American merchant vessels, and by the Indian outrages in the west, fomented by English agents. On the 19th of June, 1812, Mr. Madison issued his proclamation declaring war against Great Britain. The two chief theatres of this

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war were the northwestern frontier, and the high seas. The American operations on land were unfortunate until the final struggle at New Orleans, when our armies obtained a signal victory. On the sea, as is well known, the successes of the American Navy, small and neglected as it was, were phenomenally brilliant, alike surprising to friend and foe. The government was much hampered in the conduct of the war by the actions of the numerous peace party, which in New England was largely in the majority. Many of the proceedings of this party were so questionable, that they were openly charged by the supporters of the administration with being traitors to their country. Mr. Madison paid a spy named Henry, an Irishman, \$50,000 as a reward for information which seemed to implicate the Federal leaders in New England in a scheme for severing their connection with the Union, and returning to their old allegiance to the British crown. The idea received additional countenance from a Convention, held at Hartford, Conn., in December, 1814, for the purpose, as the Republicans claimed, of considering the question of the secession of New England. It is now known that no such disloyalty existed, but the fact remains that the trading communities carried their opposition to the war to too great an extreme.

Although Mr. Madison had no talent as a military leader, and so had little or nothing to do with the direction of the operations of the war, yet he had the misfortune to suffer personal inconvenience from the enemy. On the 24th of August, 1814, the President, with members of his cabinet mounted their horses, and went out to Bladensburg to see the militia overthrow the British invaders. The invading army proved to be too strong, and it was impossible to prevent their advance upon the Capitol. The President and his aids beat an inglorious retreat, and betook themselves to places of safety. Mr. Madison did not even wait to assist his wife to escape. That estimable lady, left to her own

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resources, proved herself equal to the emergency. She provided for the safety of the silver plate (some of it she carried with her in a handbag), and also for that of a famous portrait of Washington, by Stuart. Then she ordered her carriage, and was driven beyond the Potomac. The accounts of this affair leave the impression, that, in point of personal courage, Mrs. Madison far exceeded her distinguished husband. The British made great havoc in the city and burned the public archives. All parties rejoiced at the return of peace early in the year 1815, and no one more heartily than the unwarlike President.

Mr. Madison's second administration was also signalized by Commodore Decatur's triumphs over the Algerine pirates, and by the chartering of the second United States Bank. Two States were added to the Union during Mr. Madison's presidency, Louisiana in 1812, and Indiana in 1816. Toward the close of his term there was a great increase of emigration and the wealth and prosperity of the country began to grow rapidly. After his retirement, upon the inauguration of James Monroe in 1817, he continued to maintain his reputation as a writer, passing most of his time quietly at his residence at Montpelier. His only subsequent public service was as member of the Virginia State Convention for revising the Constitution in 1829. His domestic life was always very happy, and although some of his public acts may be open to criticism, his private character was stainless and above reproach. He died June 28, 1836, after he had reached the good old age of eighty-five.





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JOHN MARSHALL.

From a portrait by Rembrandt Peale, in the collection of the
Long Island Historical Society, Brooklyn, N. Y.

JOHN MARSHALL.



CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL was born at Germantown, Va., September 24, 1755. He was the eldest of a family of fifteen children, all of whom lived to maturity. His education was received chiefly at home, under the care of a competent private tutor, though he was for a while a fellow student with James Monroe at a classical school. At the age of eighteen he began the study of the law, but before finishing his course he heard the call to arms, and in company with his father and two of his brothers he enlisted for the defence of the liberties of his country. He was commissioned first lieutenant in the first Virginia regiment of minute-men, his father being major. His first engagement was at Great Bridge, Va., December 9, 1775, where he bore an honorable part in the defeat of a body of British regulars and tories. He was stationed at Norfolk, until it was destroyed by the British on New Year's Day, 1776, when his company disbanded and he returned home.

Nearly a year later he joined Washington's army in the dark days of its retreat through New Jersey, and from that time until the close of the year 1779 he was in nearly all the prominent engagements. In May, 1777, he was commissioned as captain, and the following winter he endured the bitter hardships of Valley Forge. He was popular among his fellow officers, and was frequently chosen as the arbiter of their disputes. The soundness of his judgment also led to

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his selection as deputy judge-advocate, in which capacity he first made the acquaintance of Washington. In 1779, being left without a command by the expiration of the term of enlistment of his men, he returned to Virginia, and while waiting for fresh troops he took the opportunity to finish his legal studies, and in the summer of 1780 he received his license to practise law.

Captain Marshall assisted the Virginia militia in repelling the invasions of Leslie and the traitor Arnold, but he waited in vain for a company. Officers were abundant, but soldiers were few, so he resigned his commission and began his long and honorable career at the bar. His great abilities soon gained for him the esteem and confidence of his fellow-citizens, and his services were demanded in the public councils, though he never at any time made any personal efforts to obtain office. He was elected to the legislature, where he was chosen as a member of the Executive Council. His increasing practice induced him to remove his residence to Richmond, and in January, 1783, he was married.

In politics Mr. Marshall acted with the Federalist party, which favored the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. In 1788 he was chosen a member of the Virginia Constitutional Convention in which Patrick Henry was the leader of the opposition. So great was his personal popularity that he was elected by a constituency who were not in favor of the ratification of the Constitution, although his opinions were well known and openly expressed. In the convention he was a co-worker with James Madison, and it was due to the combined efforts of these two master-minds that Virginia took her place in the Federal Union. He was again elected to the legislature but withdrew in 1791, and then devoted himself for several years to the practice of his profession. He was a warm supporter of the administration of Washington, but accepted no office from him, although offered a seat in the cabinet and a foreign mission.

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In February, 1797, the insolent French Directory summarily dismissed the American minister, Mr. Pinckney, so that when Mr. Adams became president, this country was without a representative in France. President Adams, desiring if possible to settle the difficulties without a war, appointed, with the consent of Congress, a special mission to France, in which John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry were to act with Mr. Pinckney in the interests of peace. Mr. Marshall sailed from Philadelphia in July, 1797, and the three envoys presented their credentials to the French prime minister, Talleyrand, on the 6th of October. Soon, to their great astonishment and indignation, they were covertly approached by that wily French statesman with demands for a bribe, and for a loan of money to aid France in carrying on the war with England in which she was then engaged. The government persisting in their demands, and the envoys steadily refusing to act in any underhand or dishonorable manner, the mission proved a failure. But during the negotiations, John Marshall upheld the dignity of his country in an admirable manner. Although treated with almost brutal insolence by Talleyrand, Marshall and Pickney finally succeeded in obtaining their passports in proper form. Gerry, who was a Democrat, was received by the government with greater favor, and allowed to remain in France.

Mr. Marshall left Paris about the middle of April, and arrived in New York in June, 1798. His course had been so straightforward and honorable, that even his political opponents greeted him warmly upon his return. He was shortly afterwards offered a seat on the Supreme Bench, but declined it. He accepted, however, a seat in Congress, and upon him, on the 19th of December, 1799, devolved the melancholy duty of announcing the death of George Washington. He retired from Congress in May, 1800, to accept from President Adams the office of Secretary of State, which he held during the remainder of the administra-

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tion. In January, 1801, he was appointed Chief Justice of the United States. Mr. Marshall accepted this important office with great pleasure, believing himself to be fitted to perform its duties, which indeed he was ; but the appointment came to him not only unsought, but as a complete surprise. He took the oath of office February 4, 1801, thus for one month filling both offices—Secretary of State and Chief Justice.

When John Marshall donned the judicial robes he was forty-five years of age, and for thirty-five years he continued to be the chief expounder of the Constitution. It may justly be considered that he came to the office providentially, just at the time when the security of that constitution demanded his Federalist conservatism as an offset to the ultra-radical notions of the Republicans, who were just coming into power. In 1807, he presided at the trial of Aaron Burr for treason, at Richmond. Mr. Marshall wrote a life of Washington, at the urgent request of the family of the first president, who placed all his private papers at the disposal of the writer ; but his literary fame has long since been eclipsed by abler biographers and his work, which consists of five large volumes, though valuable to the student, is now very rarely read. Mr. Marshall's character was one of the highest integrity, his demeanor on the bench above criticism. Kind of heart and simple in his manners, he enjoyed the general esteem of his fellow citizens. After the death of his wife in 1831, his health began to fail, and he died in Philadelphia, July 6, 1835, having visited that city for medical treatment.





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AARON BURR.

Portrait by John Vanderlyn (1775—1852). The artist was indebted, in his youth, to Aaron Burr, for assistance, and painted several portraits of his patron. The one here reproduced is in the private gallery of Pierrepont Edwards, Esq., Elizabeth, N. J.

AARON BURR.



AARON BURR was born in Newark, N. J., February 16, 1756. When quite young he lost both parents, but was left in possession of considerable property, and was cared for by an uncle. He studied with a private tutor, and entered Princeton College when only eleven years of age. As a boy he was somewhat unruly, but he attended to his studies with diligence. While at college he came within the influence of a religious revival; but being imprudently advised by some of the faculty, he made a deliberate choice of infidelity, and throughout his life remained a professed atheist. He graduated in 1772, and began the study of law in Litchfield, Conn., with his sister's husband.

The brightest period of Burr's life was that in which he served his country as a soldier during the Revolution, and he was accustomed, in his last years, to look back to it with feelings of pleasure. He joined the patriot army at Boston in 1775, and accompanied Arnold in his expedition against Quebec. It being necessary, during the terrible march through the wilderness of Maine and Canada, to communicate with General Montgomery, Burr undertook the task of carrying a despatch through one hundred and twenty miles of the enemy's country, and successfully accomplished it by adopting the disguise of a Roman Catholic priest. He now became aide to General Montgomery, with the rank of captain, and,

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when his lamented commander fell in the desperate attack upon the city, Burr was fighting bravely at his side. He remained with Arnold in Canada until the spring of 1776, when he went to New York, where he obtained a staff appointment, and became a member of the military family of General Washington. The relations between Burr and Washington were never very cordial; jealousy on the part of the subordinate, and distrust on the part of the commander, subsisted almost from their first meeting. His situation growing quite unpleasant, Burr was transferred to Putnam's headquarters in July, and served as aide to that general until after the evacuation of New York. In July, 1777, he was raised to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, with the command of his regiment, the colonel not being in the field. He improved the discipline of his troops, and was engaged in some skirmishes with the enemy in New Jersey. In November, he went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, and, while there, was engaged in the disgraceful cabal which sought to undermine the authority of Washington. At the battle of Monmouth, June 28, 1778, he held the temporary command of a brigade. In January, 1779, he assumed the command of the lines in Westchester County, New York; but the task of preserving order in that lawless district so affected his health, that he was obliged to resign his commission, and he closed his connection with the army March 10, 1779.

He now resumed the study of law, and was admitted to the New York bar in 1782. In the same year he was married to Mrs. Prevost, the widow of a British officer, and established himself at Albany, where he soon became prominent as a lawyer. Burr removed to New York after the evacuation, and for eight years continued to follow his profession, attaining great celebrity. His ample fees enabled him to live in affluence, and he gained the reputation of being a most bountiful host. His residence at Richmond Hill became the resort of some of the most famous people of the day. Among his

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distinguished guests were Louis Philippe and Talleyrand. Entering the arena of politics as an anti-federalist, he now became the political rival of Alexander Hamilton, as he had previously been his professional rival. In 1784 he was elected to the State Assembly, in 1789 was appointed Attorney-General of New York, and in 1791 he entered the United States Senate. His wife died in 1794, after a painful illness, leaving him a daughter to whom he was passionately attached, the talented and unfortunate Theodosia Burr.

He now began to indulge in aspirations for the Presidency. In 1792 he received one electoral vote; in 1796, thirty. His term in the Senate expired in 1797, and he was again chosen to the State Legislature. In 1800, Aaron Burr and Thomas Jefferson each received seventy-three electoral votes, and there was no choice by the people. After a long contest in the House of Representatives, Mr. Jefferson was elected President, and on March 4, 1801, Burr was inaugurated Vice-President of the United States.

It was during the last year of his term that the fatal duel occurred between Burr and Hamilton. Hamilton, who considered Burr as the incarnation of Democracy, dreaded a repetition of the scenes of the French Revolution, should that party obtain control of the government. Burr regarded Hamilton as his personal enemy, who, on every possible occasion, did his utmost to hinder his political advancement. For many years the enmity of these two men was concealed beneath an outward show of friendship, but at length Burr's passions burst their bounds and he sent Hamilton a challenge which was accepted. The duel was fought July 11, 1804, and Hamilton, mortally wounded at the first fire, died on the following day. Burr was indicted for murder, but through the tricks of the law he escaped punishment, and after a short retirement, during the heat of the public resentment, he returned to Washington, and completed his term as Vice-President.

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Ruined in reputation and estate, he now planned his desperate scheme for the establishment of a new nation, west of the Mississippi, of which he was to be the head. The full details of his plan have always remained partly shrouded in mystery. He spent the summer of 1805 in making a voyage down the Ohio and Mississippi to New Orleans, holding conferences with many of the leading citizens of the West and South. In the ensuing year he again went into the same region and began to make military preparations for his enterprise, which was now ostensibly an expedition against the Spanish in Texas and Mexico. His principal confederates were General Wilkinson, Commander of the United States Army in the West, and Governor of Louisiana; and one Blennerhassett, a wealthy Irish gentleman, who supplied a large amount of money for the enterprise. Troops and stores were gathered at Marietta on the Ohio. Burr was becoming a popular hero; his manners were so fascinating, that he persuaded even Henry Clay of the innocent nature of his scheme, and when summoned to appear before the United States Court at Frankfort, in December, 1806, on a charge of violating the neutrality laws, he was defended by that eminent lawyer, and acquitted; but, in the meanwhile, Wilkinson had become alarmed, and revealed to President Jefferson that Burr contemplated the secession of the southwestern territory of the United States and the occupation of New Orleans as the capital of his new empire. Thereupon the President issued a proclamation warning all persons against giving aid to this treasonable project, and the whole affair suddenly collapsed.

Aaron Burr had dreamed of royal state—he now awoke to find himself a fugitive with a price upon his head. After warning his little company to betake themselves to places of safety, he wandered from place to place, seeking concealment, until February 19, 1807, when he was discovered in a little Alabama hamlet, and arrested on a charge of treason. He

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was brought to Richmond and indicted ; but after a trial which consumed the entire summer, he was found not guilty, as no overt act could be proved against him. But he was a ruined man ; despised even by those who had been his political friends, and deserted by all except his faithful daughter, he left his country and sought refuge in England. He sailed from New York, in disguise, in June, 1808. He spent some nine months in London and Edinburgh, now mingling freely with the highest society, now hiding under an assumed name to avoid arrest for debt. At length he became an object of suspicion to the government, was arrested, and although he claimed to be a British subject, he was forced to leave the country. He left England in April, 1809, and lived for the next five months in Sweden. Then he wandered through Denmark and Germany, meeting with a highly romantic series of adventures, and reached Paris in February, 1810. He now made an attempt to interest the Emperor Napoleon in his Mexican project, but without success. Closely watched by the police in Paris for about a year, he ventured to return to England where he managed to exist in poverty until the spring of 1812, when he returned to America in disguise.

After a time he ventured to resume his practice in New York, where he lived in comparative obscurity for some twenty-three years, meeting with some success as a lawyer and low politician. Soon after his return to America, his daughter, now the wife of the Governor of South Carolina, was lost at sea. He was overwhelmed with debts. Sorrow and misfortune were his bitter portion for the remainder of his blasted life. At the age of seventy-eight he married Madame Jumel, the widow of a wealthy New York merchant, but they soon separated by mutual consent. At last the worn-out man of the world died in utter poverty and dependence at Port Richmond, on Staten Island, September 14, 1836, having reached his eighty-first year.





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ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

By John Trumbull. From the Trumbull Gallery at Yale
College, New Haven, Conn.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON was born in the Island of Nevis, in the West Indies, January 11, 1757. His early education was very scanty, and before the age of thirteen he was at work in the counting-house of a merchant. His talents, however, were so marked, that friends were found who provided him with a passage to New York, together with letters of introduction to persons of influence in that city. He first attended school at Elizabethtown, where he soon attracted notice by the excellence of his literary composition, and finished his education at King's College. He was by nature conservative, and a friend of law and order. It was these elements of his character which led him later in life to oppose the principles of the Jeffersonian, or Democratic party, deeming that their natural tendency was towards license and anarchy rather than toward liberty and good government. But he was firmly convinced of the justice of the cause of the Colonies in their resistance to the oppression of England, and, in 1774, we hear the boy of seventeen eloquently pleading in behalf of popular freedom. In 1776 he left his studies to join the army and was placed in command of a company of artillery. The efficiency of his discipline, and his personal bravery at Long Island and White Plains, attracted the attention of his superiors, and gained him a position on Washington's staff with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. A lasting friendship was formed

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between these two distinguished men, and Hamilton was trusted with the important business of conducting the General's correspondence. In December, 1780, he was married to Elizabeth, daughter of General Philip Schuyler of the patriot army. In the following February he retired from the staff. He behaved with great gallantry at Yorktown, where he held an independent command.

He now left the army and entered upon the study of the law at Albany, the home of his wife's family. In the summer of 1782 he was admitted to the bar, and at about the same time was appointed Receiver of Continental Taxes for New York. This office he held but a short time, resigning it to become a member of the Continental Congress, where he took his seat in November. While yet in the army he had thought and written upon the questions of finance and the stability of government. In Congress these same questions demanded his attention, and though he had but indifferent success in urging his ideas upon that somewhat demoralized body, his reputation as a statesman became largely enhanced. His term expired in 1783, and shortly afterward he removed with his family from Albany to New York City, where he continued in the practice of his profession, becoming now the rival of Aaron Burr.

In 1786 he was a member of the Convention at Annapolis, held to consult concerning the commercial interests of the States, and the next year, in the New York legislature he labored incessantly to promote the cause of federal union. But for his efforts, New York would not have been represented in the Constitutional Convention at all, and, as it was, he was the only one of her three delegates who favored the strengthening of the feeble national government then existing. The main portion of the Constitution, as finally adopted, was largely couched in Hamilton's own language; but in many of its features it was more democratic than the plan originally submitted by him. On the contrary it was

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regarded by the majority of the people as too aristocratic, and as conferring a dangerous degree of power upon the central government. In New York the opposition was largely in the majority; the two colleagues of Hamilton withdrew from the Convention, and refused to affix their signatures to the Constitution. No man bore a grander part in the making of our nation than did Hamilton by his untiring and fruitful efforts to gain the adhesion of the State of New York to the new plan. Sixty-three of the essays which form the "*Federalist*" were from his pen. In the summer of 1788 the State Convention met at Poughkeepsie, and after a six weeks' struggle against a determined opposition Hamilton won the day, and New York became a member of the Federal Union.

In 1789 he was selected by President Washington as Secretary of the Treasury. It was in the domain of finance that Hamilton displayed his supreme talents and attained his highest fame. In the face of opposition both in Congress and the Cabinet, he carried out his designs for the re-establishment of the credit of the nation. The Cabinet of Washington, unlike those of our day, was composed of men of different parties. It was impossible that harmony should long subsist between the opposing elements. The antagonism was especially marked between Hamilton and Jefferson, then Secretary of State, and soon these two statesmen found themselves arrayed against each other as the leaders of the two great political parties. The project for a National Bank, supported by Hamilton and denounced by the Democrats, was successfully carried through Congress and received Washington's approval in 1791. Hamilton opposed the recognition of the French Republic; but on this point he was overruled, and the French ambassador, Genet, was received. At length, weary of dissension, he tendered his resignation, and on the last day of January, 1795, the "founder of the public credit of the United States" once

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more retired to private life. He still continued, however, to support the administration, and was often looked to for advice. He defended Washington against the charges of his enemies, and assisted him in the preparation of his Farewell Address.

In 1798, when war with France seemed inevitable, an army was raised with Washington as its commander. Hamilton was appointed Inspector General, and after the death of Washington was Commander-in-Chief until the army was disbanded in 1800. John Adams was now President, and the Federal Party was hastening to its downfall. Unfortunately Hamilton aided in weakening his party by opposing the re-election of Mr. Adams. He ceased to be a statesman, and became a politician, descending to the level of his rival, Burr, whose hatred had now grown very bitter, and who sought, and easily found a pretext for a quarrel, not however, among Hamilton's own utterances, but in a letter written by one of his enemies. After some correspondence, carried on in the style which characterizes that savage "code" now happily banished from civilized society, Hamilton received and accepted a challenge from Burr. On the eleventh of July, 1804, they met at Weehawken, on the Jersey side of the Hudson, on the very spot where Hamilton's eldest son had been killed in a similar affair three years before. Burr went unharmed, while Hamilton fell, mortally wounded. He was removed to the residence of a friend in New York City, and died on the following day, after expressing sincere repentance for thus throwing his life away in the full vigor of his manhood.





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JAMES MONROE.

This portrait, with those of Jefferson and Madison, is from the series of presidential portraits executed by Gilbert Stuart, now in the possession of T. Jefferson Coolidge, Esq., of Boston and reproduced for this work by his kind permission.

JAMES MONROE.



THE last of the Virginia dynasty of presidents which occupied the executive chair of the nation, with only one interruption for thirty-two years, was born in Westmoreland County, in that State, April 28, 1758. After the usual preparation he entered William and Mary College at the age of sixteen. But the patriotic young man found it impossible to quietly pursue his studies while his country wanted defenders. Without finishing his collegiate course he went, in 1776, to New York and offered his services as a volunteer at Washington's headquarters. He remained in the army until after the battle of Monmouth, early in 1778, rising to the rank of major. At the battle of Trenton he was wounded. Circumstances interfering with his further promotion he now withdrew from the service and resumed the study of the law. He subsequently volunteered on several occasions when his native State was invaded, and in 1780 visited the Southern army as military commissioner, thus closing his honorable if not brilliant record as a soldier with the rank of lieutenant-colonel.

In 1782 Monroe entered the Virginia legislature, and was soon chosen as a member of the State Executive Council. In 1783 he went to Congress and witnessed General Washington's resignation at Annapolis. Just before the close of his term, in 1786, he was married to Miss Kortright. After retiring

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from Congress he again served in the State Legislature. Mr. Monroe was one of those politicians who hesitated to grant any considerable power to the central government for fear of interfering with the supposed rights of the several States; he consequently joined with Patrick Henry in opposing the Constitution of the United States in the Virginia Convention of 1788. He did not, however, carry his opposition so far as to refuse office under that Constitution after it had been adopted by a trembling majority of the people. He was chosen United States Senator, taking his seat in December, 1790. Though opposing the general policy of the administration, yet he was regarded with such confidence by Washington that in 1794 he was appointed Minister to France. His reception in that country was extremely enthusiastic, as it was well known that he entertained all that sympathy for the republican French government which was characteristic of the Democratic party to which he belonged. But there was a lack of harmony between Mr. Monroe and the administration, and having committed an act of gross disrespect in his unfavorable criticism of Jay's English treaty he was recalled. He returned to America in 1797, irritated by his removal and did not engage in national politics while John Adams was president. He was elected Governor of Virginia in 1799, and served for three years in that office.

In 1803 Mr. Monroe was again appointed Envoy to France. The special object of his mission was to negotiate for the purchase of Louisiana, and was speedily accomplished. He then went to England, and, in 1806, he negotiated a treaty concerning the impressment of sailors, which was so unsatisfactory to President Jefferson that he refused to submit it to the Senate for confirmation.

He now aspired to the presidency, but in accordance with the terms of Jefferson's political will, he was forced to wait patiently until Mr. Madison should first enjoy that position for eight years. He returned to America in 1807. After

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passing four years in retirement he was again elected Governor of Virginia, but soon resigned that office to become Secretary of State under President Madison. In August, 1814, he was called upon to act as Secretary of War and Military Commander at Washington after the return of the president and his cabinet to their ruined capital. He took vigorous measures for the defence of Baltimore, and patriotically pledged his private credit to supplement that of the nation in order to raise the necessary means for the support of Jackson's army at New Orleans.

Mr. Monroe was elected President of the United States in 1816, and four years later he was re-elected with practically no opposition. It was the "era of good feeling," and his administration was alike acceptable to Democrats and Federalists — indeed the latter party had now almost disappeared from American politics. It was a time of general prosperity; emigration to the West increased with great rapidity; five new States were added to the Union: Maine, Alabama, Mississippi, Illinois, and Missouri. Mr. Monroe largely increased his popularity by making, soon after his accession to office, an extended tour through the country. During his three months' progress he was everywhere greeted with rejoicings and demonstrations of respect. Habited in the undress uniform of a Continental officer, he journeyed to the eastern boundaries of New England, through the wilds of Vermont, and along the lakes to Michigan, and returned to Washington through Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. In 1819 he made a similar tour at the South.

In the year 1818 General Jackson was sent to Florida to punish the Seminole and Creek Indians for their outrages, and in the following year Florida was ceded by Spain to the United States. Treaties were also made in 1819 with Great Britain regarding the Newfoundland fisheries, and the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains. The most important measure of Mr. Monroe's administration was

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the famous compromise under which Missouri was admitted to the Union. Then the struggle between the North and the South concerning slavery first became open and acknowledged. With a strange infatuation the South clung to a system which was keeping it whole decades behind the free States in progress. Not content with cherishing the institution in their own midst, they began to clamor for its extension. The North resisted, and there were loud threats of disunion; but through the ingenuity of Henry Clay a scheme was devised by which the evil day was put off. Missouri came in with her slaves, but no slaves were to be carried into any of the rest of the western territory north of Missouri's southern limits.

Mr. Monroe's name is inseparably connected with the policy pursued by the United States with reference to the occupation of any portion of American soil by foreign governments. Existing conditions are to be respected, but the independence of any colony which attempts to throw off a foreign yoke is to be recognized. No new monarchical forms of government are to be permitted. Mr. Monroe exemplified this policy by recommending the recognition of five of the South American republics as independent nations in 1822; but it was not until the following year that he formally enunciated, in his annual message, the "Monroe Doctrine" as it has since been termed.

Our country has produced few more able statesmen than Monroe, and none more conscientious in the performance of every duty of his high office. He even refused to appoint any of his family connections to office, though there were many men of ability among them. After his retirement from the presidency he filled no public office of importance, and he considered it improper for one who had held his exalted position to mingle afterwards openly in politics. During his long public service he made many pecuniary sacrifices for his country, for which he was never recompensed. His

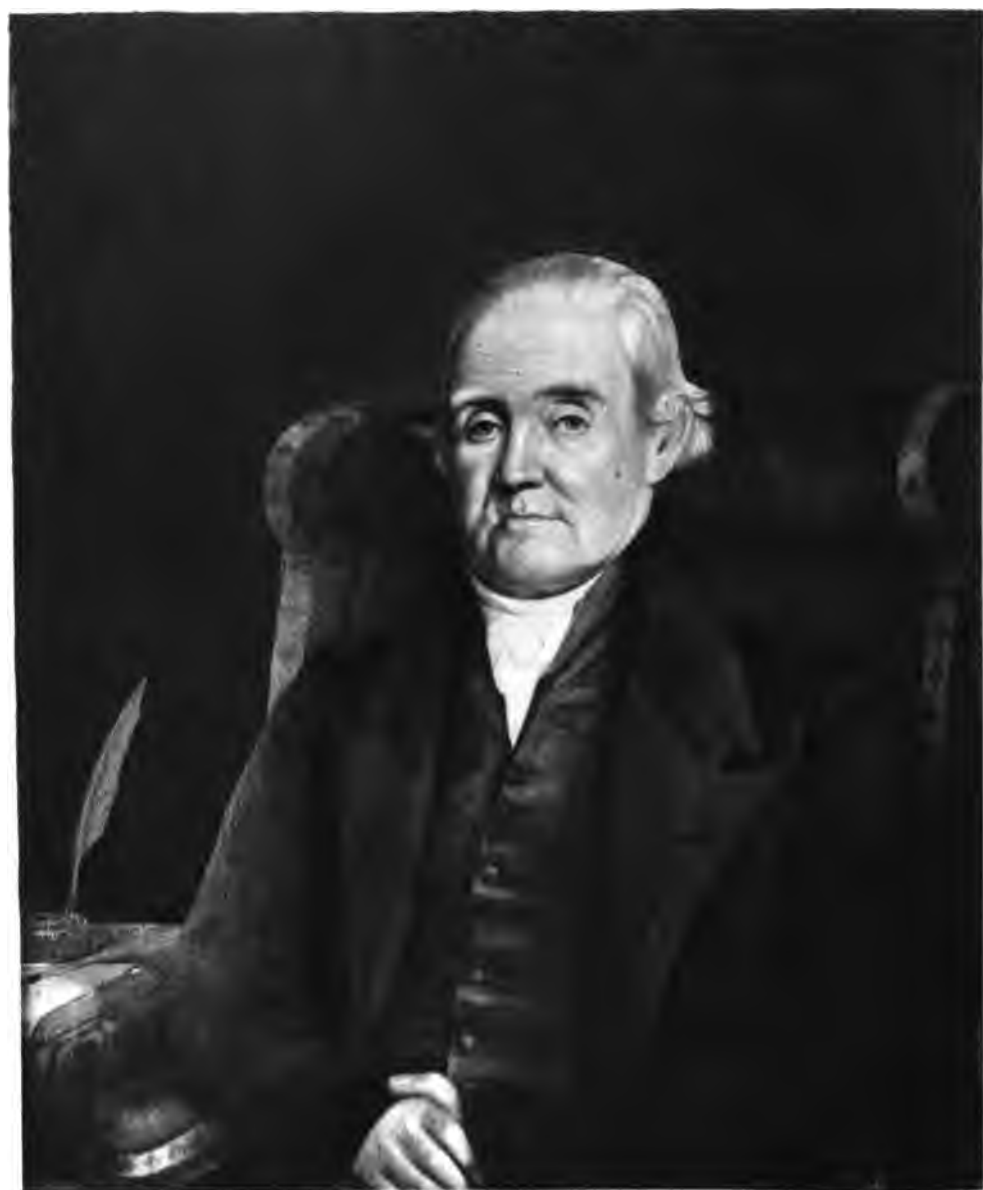
JAMES MONROE.

second presidential term expired March 4, 1825, and the remainder of his life was spent at his residence at Oak Hill, Va., or at that of his son-in-law, Mr. Gouverneur, in New York City, at which latter place he died on Independence Day, 1831.





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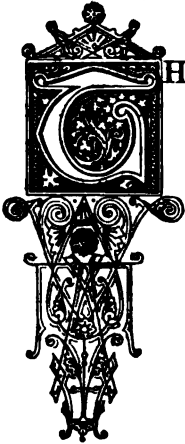
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WEBSTER.

NOAH WEBSTER.



HIS distinguished American lexicographer was born in Hartford, Conn., October 16, 1758. His father was able to send him to Yale College and provide him after his graduation with the sum of eight dollars, Continental currency. With this assistance Noah Webster was left to his own resources. He entered upon his college course in the year preceding the outbreak of the Revolution. During the alarm caused by Burgoyne's invasion he served for a while in a militia company of which his father was captain. After graduating in 1778 he undertook school-teaching as a means of support while reading law. He was admitted to the bar in 1781; but there was little or no business for lawyers at that time, and he found himself obliged to return to his former occupation of teaching. While thus engaged at Goshen, N. Y., he turned his attention to the compilation of text-books, and produced the famous speller which is in use at the present day by the fourth generation of American youth. It was published at Hartford, to which place he had returned, in 1783, and was followed in the two succeeding years by a grammar and a reading-book. The two latter works never attained a celebrity equal to that of the spelling-book, of which it is estimated that upwards of sixty-five millions of copies have been published, and from the sale of which the author and his family for twenty years derived their support.

NOAH WEBSTER.

Mr. Webster took a lively interest in public affairs, and began to write on political subjects while yet a law student. In 1783 he contributed a series of articles to the press by which he succeeded in allaying the popular discontent in Connecticut in regard to the pensioning of revolutionary veterans. From 1783 to 1785 he visited nearly all of the States to obtain copyrights for his educational works. In 1785 he issued a pamphlet strongly advocating Federal Union, and showing the weakness of the existing form of government. This pamphlet, which was written from a Federalist standpoint, was well received, and General Washington was pleased to accept a copy from the author personally. In the year 1786, he travelled through the principal cities delivering lectures on the English Language, having spent the previous summer at Baltimore in their preparation. The year the Constitution of the United States was framed, Mr. Webster was at Philadelphia where he was for a time superintendent of an academy, and again aided the cause of Union with his pen. In 1788 he made an unsuccessful attempt at magazine publishing in New York City.

In 1789 Mr. Webster again engaged in the practice of law at Hartford. His prospects now rapidly improved and he was married to Rebecca Greenleaf, a Boston lady of education and refinement. When the administration of Washington was assailed by the partisans of France and the political followers of Thomas Jefferson, in 1793, Mr. Webster removed with his family to New York and undertook to establish and edit a newspaper in the Federalist interest. His journalistic labors embraced a period of five years, during which he contributed to his paper an enormous amount of editorial matter. In 1798 he disposed of his newspaper, which had proved to be an unprofitable investment, removed to New Haven, and thenceforth devoted his life mainly to literary pursuits. While in New York he had made investi-

NOAH WEBSTER.

gations into the nature of pestilential diseases, being moved thereto by the prevalence of the yellow fever in that city, and he afterwards published a valuable work on the subject. He still remained a stanch Federalist, and, in 1802, he published a caustic criticism upon President Jefferson's inaugural. He was influential in calling together the Hartford Convention of 1814, but was not a member of it. He looked upon the control of the government by the Democrats as a great calamity, and when, in 1832, Jackson's election was a foregone conclusion, he refused to cast his ballot at all.

He began the great work of his life, the dictionary, which has made his name a household word wherever our language is spoken, in the year 1807. The first edition was published, simultaneously in this country and in England, in 1828. Twenty-one years had been employed in its preparation, and its author had reached the advanced age of seventy. During ten years of this time, from 1812 to 1822, Mr. Webster resided at Amherst, Mass., and was a member of the first board of trustees of the college at that place. He went to Europe in 1824, and spent some two years in visiting the principal universities of England, and consulting the Royal Library at Paris. The closing pages of the dictionary were written at Cambridge, England. In 1833 he published a revised version of the Bible.

Mr. Webster's methods in imparting instruction were diametrically opposed to the kindergarten and similar systems of our day. He had no confidence in schemes to make learning come easily. He believed that only such knowledge was worth having as came by hard study. He would store the mind of the young with a thousand things which seemed useless, at least at that early time of life, for the sake of the benefit to be derived from the mental training. The world is certainly drifting away from his methods; whether it be for the better, remains to be seen.

He was a most exemplary parent, the undisputed ruler of

NOAH WEBSTER.

his household, of high moral integrity, very orderly, and extremely sensitive to any breach of the rules of decorum. His writings cover a wide range of subjects and he was unremitting in his application to study. It has been said of him that the only relaxation or refreshment he required was simply to turn his attention to some new branch of science, finding in variety all the needed relief in his life of mental toil. But in thus devoting himself to literature he did not by any means become a recluse. He was interested in all the public discussions of the time — wrote upon them — spoke upon them in public. He was an earnest advocate of a liberal copyright law which should extend the time during which authors are protected in their literary property, and even spent the winter of 1830 in Washington, at his own expense, lobbying in the interest of such a law which he was finally successful in getting passed.

He filled many offices of trust and distinction. He was alderman of New Haven, judge of a Connecticut court, represented New Haven in the legislature of Connecticut, and Amherst in that of Massachusetts. His alma mater conferred upon him the degree of LL. D. in 1823. He lived to publish a second edition of his great work, which has since been many times revised and enlarged, until at length it has outgrown its distinctively American character and become "international." His last labors were upon the appendix to the dictionary, only a short time previous to his death, which occurred in his eighty-fifth year at New Haven, May 28, 1843.



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EDWARD PREBLE.

From an original by Gilbert Stuart. This portrait was painted
at the request of Commodore Preble's friends and
afterwards presented to the city of Boston, and
now adorns the walls of Faneuil Hall.

EDWARD PREBLE.



EDWARD PREBLE was born August 15, 1761, within the limits of the present city of Portland, Maine. His father was an old soldier of the French war, a member of the Provincial Congress and General Court of Massachusetts, of which Maine then formed a part, and a Judge of Common Pleas. Edward was the third son and was designed for a professional life, but he had a greater inclination for athletic exercises than for study. He inherited a very courageous disposition. Portland, then known as Falmouth, was bombarded and partially destroyed by the British under Captain Mowatt, October 18, 1775. The elder Preble met with so great a loss on this occasion, that he removed into the country and went to farming, Edward being obliged to perform his share of the labor after finishing his studies at school. This was a drudgery so galling that he rose in rebellion, went to Falmouth, and enlisted on board of a privateer at the age of sixteen. His first voyage was a rough one, but, nevertheless, he determined to become a sailor.

Through his father's influence he obtained a midshipman's warrant in the service of the Massachusetts Marine and joined the ship *Protector*, under John Foster Williams, in 1779. His first action was with the British letter-of-marque, *Admiral Duff*. After a conflict of about an hour and a half the latter vessel took fire and blew up. A second cruise in

EDWARD PREBLE.

the same ship proved more unfortunate, for the *Protector* was captured in the fall of 1780 by the British frigate *Roebuck*, and Preble was taken to New York, and confined on board the notorious prison-hulk "Jersey" for nearly a year. He was finally released through the intervention of a Tory, an old comrade of his father's in the French war, and soon afterward he joined another Massachusetts privateer of which he was made first lieutenant.

After the close of the war he entered the merchant marine in which he continued with varying fortune for fifteen years. During this period of his life he visited many foreign countries, becoming familiar with the customs of some of them through a temporary residence as a mercantile agent. He accumulated no great fortune, however, and on one occasion suffered a severe loss through the capture of his vessel by a French pirate.

In the year 1799 Edward Preble entered the United States Navy as a first-lieutenant, and was assigned to the command of the revenue cutter *Pickering*. Not long afterward he was raised to the rank of captain and given charge of the new frigate *Essex*, in which he sailed in January, 1800, on a cruise to the East Indies. He had the honor of displaying the American flag, for the first time from a man-of-war, on the Indian Ocean. He returned from this cruise with a constitution undermined by the ravages of a fever which he had contracted, and he was never afterward fully restored to health. He was forced to take a furlough, and during this interval he was married to Mary Deering, of Portland. In 1802 he was again ordered to sea, but was excused on account of continued ill-health, the secretary of the Navy declining to receive his resignation.

May 14, 1803, he was assigned to the frigate *Constitution*, and soon after put in command of a squadron. His destination was the Mediterranean where he was to act against the Barbary States in the north of Africa, and especially against

EDWARD PREBLE.

Tripoli. His squadron was the third which had been fitted out by the United States on this service within three years. He sailed from Boston in August and joined the remainder of his fleet at Gibraltar, September 12. He deemed it expedient to first make a visit to Morocco, and there he had an interview with the emperor. Some piratical Moorish cruisers had been making seizures of American merchantmen, but the emperor, seeing he had a determined man to deal with, hastened to disavow the acts of his lawless subjects and promised that the business should stop; furthermore renewing the treaty which had been made by his father with the United States in 1786.

Having thus compelled the Moors to respect his flag, he began operations against Tripoli as soon as possible by instituting a blockade of the port. He met at the outset with a discouraging disaster. Captain Bainbridge, while pursuing one of the enemy's cruisers, had the misfortune to run his ship, the *Philadelphia*, on the rocks where she was captured by the Tripolitans, and Preble was thus left with only one frigate, his flagship *Constitution*. Many months were now consumed in making preparations for an attack upon the strongly-defended city. During this interval occurred the brilliant exploit of Lieutenant Decatur, who recaptured and burned the *Philadelphia*. Preble succeeded in communicating with Bainbridge, and sent him money and provisions for himself and his fellow captives in Tripoli. He also attempted to negotiate with the Bashaw, but as that mighty potentate demanded an exorbitant tribute, the conferences came to nothing. At length having been forced through the parsimony of his government to obtain a loan of gunboats and ammunition from the King of Naples, he decided, although his force was yet inadequate, to attack the city.

Between the third and the twenty-eighth of August, 1804, four attacks were made. The American force consisted of

EDWARD PREBLE.

Preble's flagship, three brigs, three schooners and eight gunboats belonging to the King of Naples. These ships carried in all ten hundred and sixty men. Against them were opposed twenty-five thousand Arabs and Turks behind strong walls, protected by one hundred and fifteen heavy guns. Besides this there were twelve shore batteries and a strong force of gunboats. The first action began at three in the afternoon and lasted till sundown, when the fleet retired owing to the threatening aspect of the weather. The *Constitution* had shelled the city inflicting great damage, while Decatur had attacked the shipping. Three of the enemy's gunboats were captured and three more sunk. Preble was the last to leave the harbor, covering the retiring fleet with the guns of the *Constitution*. Four days later another attack was made. This time the gunboats did all the fighting, shelling the city and silencing six of the enemy's guns. Preble lost one gunboat which blew up. During this day's battle the frigate *John Adams* arrived, not, however, in a condition to afford Preble much aid; but she brought him the unwelcome news that he was to be superseded by Commodore Samuel Barron. Although mortified to think that he should lose the opportunity of receiving the Bashaw's submission after such heroic efforts, yet he determined to continue in the discharge of his duty as became a patriotic officer until his successor should arrive. A gale now compelled the fleet to seek shelter until the 24th, when a midnight attack was made without any important result. August 28th a general fire was opened on the city, and the guns of the castle and two of the batteries were silenced.

The final attack while Preble held command of the fleet was made on the 4th of September. The *Intrepid* was loaded with a hundred barrels of gunpowder and a large number of shells, besides quantities of solid shot and scrap iron. She was towed toward the enemy's vessels by two boats. The design was to fire the vessel and then escape,

EDWARD PREBLE.

leaving her to explode and destroy the shipping. Unfortunately, although the night was very dark, she was observed from the shore and fired upon. Just before she reached an effective position she blew up, and so failed to accomplish her mission. Nothing was ever heard of the crews of the boats, who, undoubtedly, all perished. A monument has been erected in their honor at Washington. Preble surrendered his command to Barron, September 10, 1804. He still remained with the fleet for about four months, visiting several of the Mediterranean cities while closing up his official business. At Naples he was honored with a reception at the court of Ferdinand IV.

Preble returned to America early in 1805, and received a vote of thanks from Congress and a gold medal. His health, which as we have seen had been delicate since his first cruise, now began to fail more rapidly. He was obliged to decline an appointment as Navy agent at Boston, and remained at Portland superintending as long as he was able the construction of gunboats. The capture of the *Chesapeake* in June, 1807, fired him with a desire to re-engage in active service; but it was too late. He died on the 25th of August, leaving a handsome property to his widow and infant son.





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ROBERT FULTON.

By H. R. Burdick, after Benjamin West (1738-1820).

In possession of the publishers.

ROBERT FULTON.



ROBERT FULTON, whose genius first gave a practical value to the wonderful power of steam as a propelling force, was born at Little Britain, Penn., in the year 1765. During his boyhood he exhibited many proofs of his inventive powers, as in the manufacture of pencils with which he made mechanical drawings of actual merit when but ten years of age; and in the contrivance of a set of paddle-wheels with which to impel his boat while fishing. In fact this practical bent of his mind interfered to some extent with his studies. He found more pleasure in the workshop than in school. He also began early to develop a talent for painting, and in the exercise of this art he first found the means of providing for his own support. Having made considerable progress in his chosen profession, he went to Philadelphia in 1782, and for four years found ample employment as a painter of landscapes and miniatures, and mechanical draughtsman. By the time he was twenty-one he was able to purchase a small farm, and thus provide for his widowed mother a comfortable home for her declining years.

In 1786, after a severe illness, he sailed for England, bearing letters of introduction to his famous fellow-countryman, Benjamin West, and for several years he remained the guest and pupil of that eminent artist. But painting was only a means for gaining a livelihood. He found his chief enjoy-

ROBERT FULTON.

ment in mechanical and scientific investigations, and he felt that in those fields alone he could exercise his highest talents. While making a tour of the art galleries of England he made the acquaintance of the Duke of Bridgewater, a nobleman deeply interested in the improvement of inland navigation. It was through his influence that Fulton was finally induced to abandon the pursuit of art, except as a means of recreation, and to become a civil engineer. He took up his residence in Birmingham, where he became acquainted with Watt who had just perfected his steam-engine. He engaged in the construction of canals and other public works, and invented a number of mechanical contrivances of considerable value. For his suggestions concerning the improvement of canals he received the thanks of two learned societies, and he published a treatise on this subject in London in 1796.

In this latter year Fulton left England and went to France for the purpose of securing patents in that country for his inventions, chief among which, so far, was his inclined plane for transferring canal boats to different levels. His stay in France was extended to a period of seven years, during which time he was an inmate of the family of the American poet and statesman, Joel Barlow. Much of his time was now devoted to the study of chemistry, physics, and the higher mathematics, and he also acquired a knowledge of several modern languages. In 1800 he projected the first panorama ever exhibited in Paris.

In 1797, Fulton began a series of experiments on submarine torpedoes, and in 1800 constructed a "diving-boat" in which he was able to remain for several hours at a considerable depth under water, and manage the boat in that position with ease. He exhibited his contrivance for the destruction of vessels by submarine explosion to the English and French governments, demonstrating the practical value of his invention by actually blowing to pieces several old vessels which were placed at his disposal for that purpose.

ROBERT FULTON.

He was unsuccessful, however, in interesting either of these governments in his invention to a sufficient degree to be of any pecuniary benefit to himself, probably on account of his patriotic refusal to allow either of these foreign nations the exclusive right to use so powerful an engine of warfare.

During these years he was pondering upon the subject of steam navigation. Many persons, both in Europe and America, had experimented in this line, some of whom had succeeded in propelling vessels at a low rate of speed, and notable among these was the unfortunate Fitch, who had constructed a stern-wheel steamboat which made regular trips between Philadelphia and Burlington in the year 1790. Fitch enjoyed, by the act of the legislature of New York, the exclusive right to navigate the waters of that State by steam, and after his death in 1798 this right was granted by a new act to Robert R. Livingston, first chancellor of the State of New York. The name of this distinguished man will ever be associated with that of Fulton in connection with the greatest benefaction to the human race since the invention of printing. Livingston was interested in the works of Fitch and other inventors of steam vessels, and was possessed of ample wealth with which to prosecute his experiments. In 1801 he went to France as American minister and there met Fulton, with whom he quickly determined to co-operate. The genius of the mechanic, aided by the liberality of the statesman, triumphed over the obstacles which had hitherto thwarted the ingenious designs of so many inventors. Fulton's first steamboat was constructed in 1803, and made successful trips on the river Seine. It was, however, rather flimsily built and sank during the first trial, and Fulton's personal labors in repairing the damages were fatal to his health.

Fulton returned to America in 1806, after an absence from his native country of twenty years, and at once began the construction of the *Clermont*, named in honor of Living-

ROBERT FULTON.

ston's country seat on the Hudson. Her engine was built in England. This pioneer of steam navigation was completed in August, 1807, and at once began making regular trips between New York City and Albany. The success of the enterprise was complete and permanent. During his lifetime Fulton held the monopoly, transferred to him by Livingston, of the steamboat traffic on the Hudson; but he was subjected to a vexatious series of lawsuits in defence of his rights against ambitious and unscrupulous rivals. After his death this monopoly was declared unconstitutional, and, in consequence, his family, to whom he left little else, fell into very reduced circumstances.

He built, besides the *Clermont*, many other vessels for service on the Hudson and Long Island Sound. His first steam ferry-boat, built in 1812, connected New York and Jersey City. The next year two boats were built to run between New York and Brooklyn. In 1811 the first steamboat appeared on the Mississippi built from his plans, and the rapid multiplication of similar craft on all the inland waters of the Union was almost phenomenal. He also continued his experiments with torpedoes, receiving some little aid from the government, but he was not destined to achieve any great success in that line, nor did he live to see the completion of his steam-frigate, *Fulton the First*, which was launched in 1814, its construction being authorized by Congress for the defence of the harbor of New York.

Robert Fulton was married, in 1808, to a niece of Chancellor Livingston. He was a kind husband and father, a genial host, and bore a character above reproach. His death, which occurred on the 24th of February, 1815, as the result of imprudent exposure, was universally regretted, and his obsequies were marked by a degree of pomp rarely accorded to a private citizen.



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ELI WHITNEY.

From an original in the possession of his son, Eli Whitney,
Esq., of New Haven, Conn. An authentic like-
ness of the great inventor, by King.

ELI WHITNEY.



ELI WHITNEY, to whom the Southern planter is almost wholly indebted for whatever degree of agricultural prosperity he may enjoy, was born at Westborough, Mass., December 8, 1765. At a very early age he began to show signs of an extraordinary mechanical genius. His father, who was a respectable farmer, was also something of a mechanic and had a workshop, where at odd times he carried on the trades of wheelwright and chairmaker. The lad soon learned to use tools, and at the age of twelve is said to have made a very creditable violin, which feat, however, was looked upon by his practical father as a somewhat foolish waste of time. One Sunday, while the family was at church, young Eli got his father's watch, took it entirely to pieces, and then reconstructed it so successfully that he was never found out.

Though Mr. Whitney discouraged his son's ingenious attempts as a musical instrument maker, he had no objection to the exercise of his skill in what he considered a more useful direction. Among the many articles of every-day domestic use for which the Colonists had been forced to depend largely on the mother country, through the selfish policy of the British Government, was iron nails. With the opening of the revolutionary war and the consequent cutting off of the supply from England, the price of nails increased

ELI WHITNEY.

with their increasing scarcity, and many of the Massachusetts country people found it profitable to erect little forges in their chimney corners, and devote their evenings and the winter season to the manufacture of these indispensable little articles. The work was quite simple and could easily be performed by a clever boy. Young Eli was quick to see this chance, and easily persuaded his father to furnish him with a few tools. Soon he had a domestic nail factory established, and this business he carried on successfully with considerable profit until the war closed. When the demand for his nails fell off, he turned his attention to the manufacture of bonnet-pins for ladies, and of walking canes. All this time he remained at home and aided his father on the farm during the summer.

At the age of nineteen he became desirous of obtaining a more liberal education; but encountered a determined opposition from his parents, so that it was not until more than three years after he had attained his majority that he was enabled, partly by teaching school and partly by the profits of his handiwork, to defray the expenses of a college course. He entered Yale in 1789 and graduated in 1792, having devoted all his leisure time to mechanical pursuits. On leaving college he was engaged by a gentleman from Georgia in the capacity of a private tutor; but upon his arrival in that distant State, he found that his services were not required. He was almost entirely without means, but he now fortunately made the acquaintance of the widow of General Nathanael Greene, of revolutionary fame; and yielding to her earnest solicitation he made his home for a time in her family, and began to read law. But a chance conversation led not only to a complete change in Mr. Whitney's plans, but also to that usurpation of commercial and political supremacy on the part of the cotton planter, which was maintained for nearly three quarters of a century and only overthrown after four years of civil war.

ELI WHITNEY.

When Whitney went to Georgia there were only a few small cotton factories in the United States. Only eight years had elapsed since the first export of cotton to England which now amounted to only about four hundred bales annually. One day the conversation among Mrs. Greene's guests turned upon the state of agriculture, Mr. Whitney listening with no great interest, as he was entirely ignorant on the subject of cotton culture, having, indeed, never seen any of the staple. The statement was made that there would never be any great profit in the production of cotton until some process should be devised for cleaning the seed from the wool more rapidly than it could be done by hand, as was then the only method known. Mrs. Greene, who had a high appreciation of Whitney's genius, suggested that he should invent the machinery necessary for this purpose. He quickly decided to do so, and set to work in good earnest although surrounded by many difficulties. Very few suitable tools were to be procured in Savannah, and he was obliged to manufacture the greater part of those which he required, as well as to draw all the wire which he used. A gentleman named Miller, who afterwards married Mrs. Greene, furnished him with a room in which to experiment, and subsequently a partnership was formed between Whitney and Miller, the latter gentleman, of course, supplying the necessary capital. Whitney worked all winter on his invention, but although great pains were taken to keep the affair secret until a patent could be obtained, yet the knowledge in some manner leaked out. Popular curiosity was raised in an extraordinary degree. People came from far and near to see the wonderful machine which they readily perceived would be of such great benefit to them. They were steadily refused; but the excitement became so great that the building was broken open at night and the machine was stolen, and before Whitney could perfect his model and get a patent, several machines copied from his were surreptitiously in use. The invention which was

ELI WHITNEY.

introduced to the public in this underhand manner was the cotton gin, which may be briefly described as a cylinder provided with a series of circular saws, the teeth of which drag the cotton wool through a wire grating which prevents the passage of the seed, the wool being removed from the teeth of the saw by swiftly revolving brushes.

Mr. Whitney now returned to the North and established a factory at New Haven for the manufacture of his cotton gin, for which he obtained a patent in 1794. From the very first he had to fight against almost insuperable obstacles. Infringements sprang up like mushrooms. The Georgia planters, in their eagerness to avail themselves of the advantages of his machine, were utterly regardless of his rights. He became involved in numerous lawsuits—some sixty in all—and, in 1795, to add to his other perplexities, his factory with its entire contents was destroyed by fire. He was not discouraged, but thought it prudent to find some other business as a means of support in case the cotton gin should fail to prove remunerative. He consequently opened a correspondence with the Secretary of the Treasury, and obtained a valuable contract for the manufacture of arms for the government, in 1798. He built an armory at New Haven, and continued in this business for the remainder of his life, and the establishment has since been carried on, with increasing prosperity, by his heirs. By constantly improving the methods of construction he effected a large annual saving for the government. He instructed his workmen personally, preferring new hands to those who had learned other systems of gun-making.

The benefit accruing to the cotton-growing States through his invention was enormous. The value of land was doubled. In two years after the introduction of the cotton gin, the exports increased from twelve hundred to fifteen thousand bales. The present production is about eight millions of bales, of which less than one third is consumed in this

ELI WHITNEY.

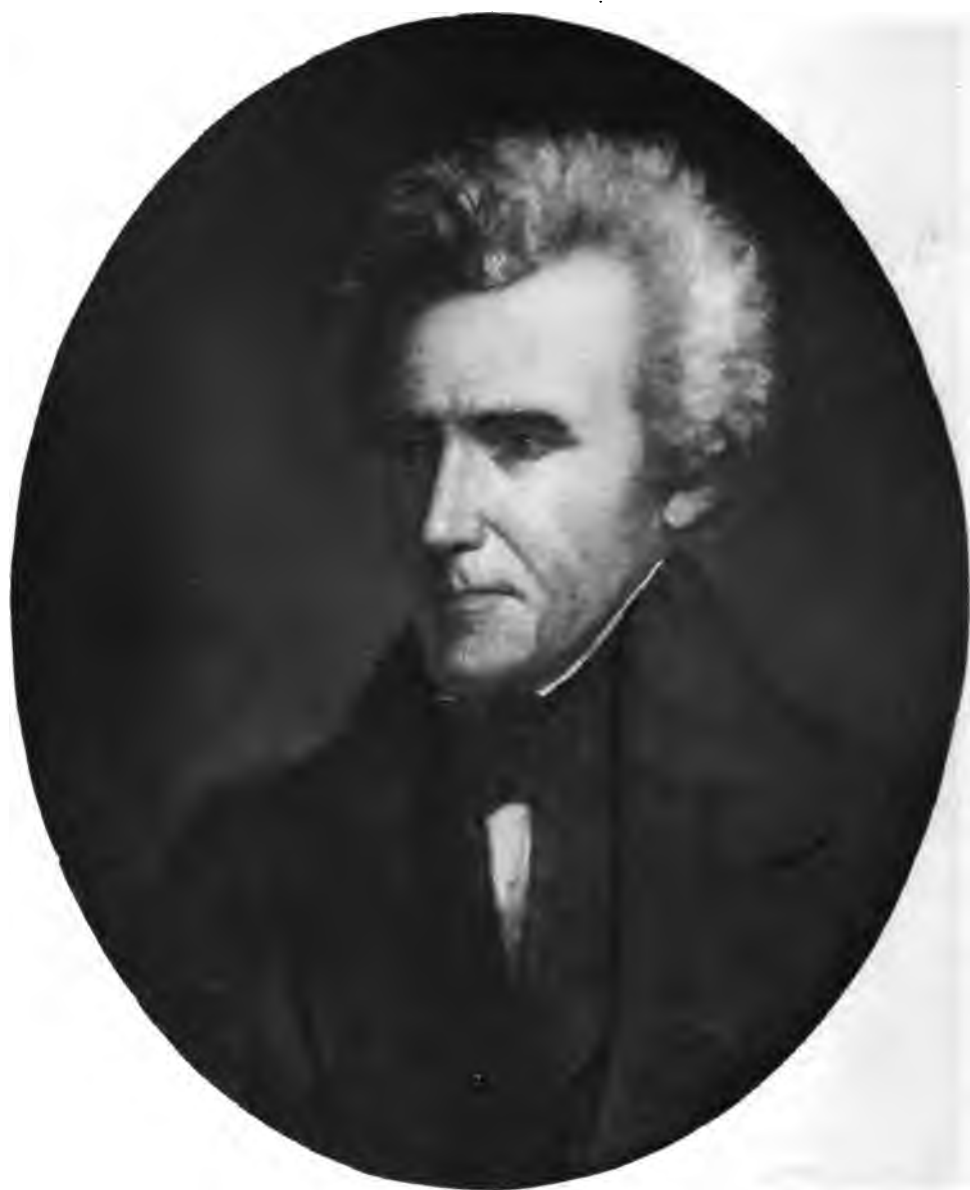
country. Messrs. Whitney and Miller finally obtained generous returns from the States of North and South Carolina, though they still continued to view with great chagrin the numerous infringements which unprincipled men were continually putting upon the market. Miller died in 1803, leaving Mr. Whitney to carry on the business with its vexatious lawsuits alone.

In 1812 he made a contract with the United States for fifteen thousand stand of arms, and with the State of New York for as many more. These contracts he succeeded in filling, owing to his improved methods, while others who engaged in a similar undertaking at the same time, using the old English processes, were doomed to utter failure. In this same year he applied to Congress for a renewal of his patent on the cotton gin ; but so great was the selfishness of the planters of the South, into whose pockets Whitney's invention had put millions of dollars, that, through their representatives in Congress, they opposed his petition and secured its rejection. Mr. Whitney's manners were in the highest degree dignified and refined, and he enjoyed the universal respect and affection of his neighbors. It is gratifying to add that, his determined efforts, undaunted by adversity, at length obtained for him a competent fortune, and that his later years were passed in ease and retirement. He was married, in 1817, to a daughter of the celebrated Judge Pierpont Edwards, and had a family of four children. He died on the eighth of January, 1825.





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ANDREW JACKSON.

From an original attributed to Thomas Ball, the property of
Moses Kimball. In the possession of the Boston Museum.

ANDREW JACKSON.



ANDREW JACKSON was born March 15, 1767, very near the dividing line between the two Carolinas, but probably in the Southern province. He was destined to become the seventh President of the United States, and was the representative of an entirely different class of men from his predecessors. The first six presidents were men of good family, and had been carefully educated. Andrew Jackson's father was a poor Irish emigrant who never possessed a foot of land, and whose death, about the time of Andrew's birth, left his family destitute. Andrew's youth was passed amid toil and poverty, with hardly the slightest chance of obtaining any kind of an education. During the Revolution he saw some fighting, and was taken prisoner during an inroad of the British into his district. Being left entirely to himself, by the death of his mother and two brothers, he managed to support himself in various ways until 1784, when we find him as a law student at Salisbury, N. C. His legal attainments were small, but were sufficient to gain him some practice. In 1788 he settled at Nashville, and was appointed public prosecutor. Here, in 1791, he was married to Mrs. Robards, unfortunately before she was legally divorced from her former husband. In 1794 the ceremony of marriage was repeated, the divorce having been granted in the meantime. He was always extremely fond of his wife, and any allusion

ANDREW JACKSON.

to these irregular proceedings, such as were frequently made in the heat of political controversy, was sure to rouse his fiercest anger.

In 1796, Jackson was a member of the convention which framed the Constitution of the new State of Tennessee, and upon the admission of that State became its first representative in Congress. In 1797 he was elected to the United States Senate, but resigned his seat after holding it about a year, and accepted a position upon the supreme bench of Tennessee. This position he held until 1803, when he resigned. We have no record of his decisions as a judge, but his private letters at this period display an extraordinary degree of illiteracy. He continued for some time a private citizen, a trader and a planter. His success had thus far been very small. His great talents as a military leader had not yet had any chance for development. He was, however, on the road to fame in that direction, having been made major-general of militia in 1801. In a duel, in 1806, he killed his man, and received injuries himself from which he never quite recovered. On the opening of the war of 1812 he offered his services to the government. In January, 1813, he was ordered to march to New Orleans, but soon afterward the plans of the war department were changed, and he dismissed his men. One result of this short campaign was a quarrel between Jackson and Thomas H. Benton, who had served under him. In consequence of this quarrel Jackson carried a ball in his shoulder for many years. His next military experience was as commander of the Tennessee militia, in an expedition against the Creek Indians. His troops were little more than a mob, without discipline, or even proper supplies; yet so well were they managed by Jackson's iron hand, that the savages were severely punished.

In May, 1814, Andrew Jackson was commissioned major-general in the regular army, and assigned to the command of the department of the South, with his headquarters at

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Mobile. The English occupied Pensacola, then a Spanish city. Jackson asked for orders to attack them at that point, and after waiting a while in vain for a favorable reply from the secretary of war, then a fugitive from Washington, which had been destroyed by British troops, he took the responsibility of acting without orders. This was highly characteristic of the man. He made prompt decisions, and was inflexible in his purposes. Pensacola was captured in November, and the British troops driven away. In December he went to New Orleans, to resist General Packenham's advance. He inspired the defenders of the Crescent City with unbounded enthusiasm. January 8, 1815, the assault was made on the American works, and, as all the world knows, the English suffered a most overwhelming defeat. They lost more than two thousand men, including General Packenham, who was killed, while the American loss was only thirteen. The name of Andrew Jackson will forever remain identified with the glorious victory at New Orleans. It was the only American success on land of any account, during the war, and was won two weeks after the signing of the treaty of peace at Ghent. It made General Jackson the foremost man of the nation.

We now proceed to consider the remainder of his military life. Strange to say his entire active career as a soldier only covers a period of twenty-three months. Like his first campaign, his second, and closing one, was conducted with a total disregard for the orders of his superiors. All through his life he was headstrong and passionate. The territory of Florida, then belonging to Spain, was a refuge for escaped slaves from Georgia, and the base of operations for the savage Seminoles. The Spanish government was powerless to prevent the inroads of these Indians into the United States territory. Jackson was ordered to assist General Gaines who was defending the Georgia frontier. He raised additional troops, marched into Florida, and soon practically conquered

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it. He arrested two Englishmen whom he suspected of complicity with the Indians, and had them court-martialed and shot. He captured Pensacola from the Spaniards on the plea that some of the Indians had taken refuge there. For these unauthorized measures he incurred the displeasure both of Congress and of the War Department. Resolutions of censure were introduced into the House of Representatives. So great was Jackson's popularity, as evinced during a visit which he now made to the North, that Congress was afraid to pass the resolutions, and they were dropped. We cannot but admire his firmness and courage; yet, it is easy to see that Clay had some good grounds for the distrust with which he regarded Jackson, fearing that his independence and ambition might lead him to subvert the liberties of his country.

Florida was purchased by the United States in 1819, and, in 1821, Jackson was appointed governor of the territory. While acting in this capacity his arrogance and sense of self-importance continued to increase. No one could stand before his personal resentment. After some six months' service as governor of Florida, he resigned, and returned to his home. He had been dropped from the Army List by reason of a reduction of the forces. In 1823 he declined the Mexican mission, and was elected United States Senator from Tennessee.

Of course he was a candidate for the presidency. No principles were at stake in the election of 1824. Jackson was the most popular candidate, and received the largest vote, but failed of a majority. Clay received the smallest vote, but, to compensate him for his disappointment, he had the satisfaction of defeating Jackson in the House of Representatives, and of securing the election of John Quincy Adams. Jackson had previously borne Clay little good-will, but he now became his most violent enemy. He firmly believed the charge made against Clay of the "corrupt bar-

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gain " with Adams, and continued in that belief until he died. For the next four years Jackson's friends kept him before the country as a candidate for election in 1828, and in that year he was elected to the presidency by an overwhelming majority over President Adams. He had resigned his seat in the Senate in 1825, and remained in retirement until his inauguration as President of the United States, March 4, 1829.

His first business was to gratify his party, and his own private revenge, by turning out Federalists and anti-Jackson Democrats from office by the wholesale. It was a new thing in national politics. The government had been in existence more than half a century, under six administrations, by different parties, and in all that time only seventy-four persons had been removed from office, and many of these were defaulters. In one year from the time he assumed his office, Jackson removed seven hundred and thirty office holders, for no other reason than to make room for the hungry horde of his supporters who were waiting for the spoils. It is a matter of most profound regret that the evil custom of rewarding partisan services, by the gift of offices especially vacated for that purpose, has become fixed, with little hopes of ever being got rid of. Mrs. Jackson did not live to enter the White House; she died in December, 1828. General Jackson was re-elected in 1832, with Mr. Van Buren as vice-president. Jackson had been on very bad terms with Vice-President Calhoun during his first term.

Indian troubles became prominent during the administration. Black Hawk's war in the North-west occurred in 1832. The savages were subdued by General Scott. Measures had been taken to transport the Indians of Georgia and the Gulf States, beyond the Mississippi. The semi-civilized Chickasaws and Choctaws made no trouble; but the Creeks and Seminoles resisted, and a bloody war ensued. General Jackson constantly opposed his veto to measures of internal improvement, holding that they should be left to the several States.

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In 1832 he vetoed a bill rechartering the United States Bank.

General Jackson's greatest glory was his course in dealing with South Carolina nullification. The tariff of 1828 was extremely unpopular at the South, as it was supposed to injure the agricultural interests of that section for the benefit of the Northern manufacturers. As a remedy, it was proposed by many Southern statesmen, prominent among them Calhoun, that the States who felt themselves injured should pass laws, nullifying the United States statutes within their borders. They hoped that Jackson, being a Southerner, and an ardent advocate of State Rights, would side with them. But they were mistaken. At a banquet in Washington in 1830, he defined his position in the memorable words, "Our Federal Union: It must and shall be preserved." But South Carolina persisted in the evil course. In 1832, an ordinance was passed in that State nullifying the Tariff Laws of the United States, and providing for the secession of the State from the Union in case the general government undertook to enforce her laws. Jackson's patriotic spirit showed itself at once. He sent vessels of war to Charleston, sent General Scott there, and had troops collected in the vicinity, and issued a proclamation, denying the right of any State to contravene the laws of the United States. His promptness and energy disarmed treason and averted a civil war.

Believing that the United States Bank was managed by politicians against the interest of the people, or at least of his party, he recommended Congress to have the public money removed from the custody of that institution. Congress refused to do so, and he proceeded to assume the responsibility himself. The Secretary of the Treasury, Duane, refusing to make the removal, he was dismissed, and Roger B. Taney, one of Jackson's strong personal friends, was put in his place during the recess of Congress. Then the funds were removed from the United States Bank and distributed

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among State banks. The removal began in October, 1833. Congress was offended, but so great was Jackson's stubborn determination, that he carried his point in spite of all opposition. When it met in December, Congress refused to approve of Taney's appointment. Jackson made him Chief Justice of the United States, in which position he acquired in after years an infamous notoriety for his decisions in favor of slave-holders. The Senate passed resolutions of censure for the removals, but Jackson succeeded in having them expunged.

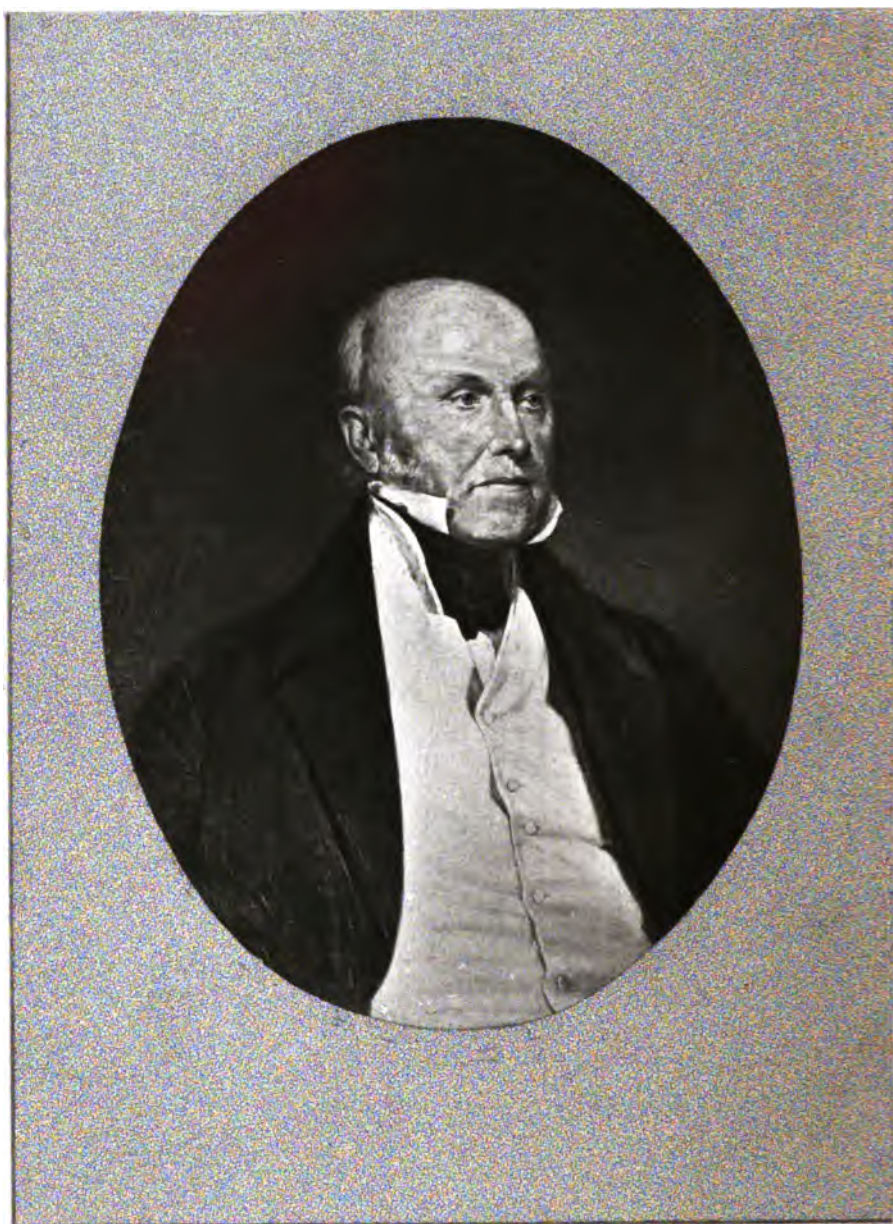
Just before the close of his term the Independence of Texas was recognized by the United States. This led a few years later to our war with Mexico. January 30, 1835, an attempt was made to assassinate General Jackson, while he was coming from the capitol at Washington. The assassin proved to be insane; but Jackson persisted in believing himself to be the victim of a plot laid by his political enemies. Two States were added to the Union during his administration; Arkansas, in 1836, and Michigan in the following year.

In 1836 Mr. Van Buren was elected president, and was inaugurated the following 4th of March, when General Jackson retired to private life, in the midst of the most disastrous financial panic the country ever saw. He lived nine years longer, and lived to enjoy the recollection of having been the most powerful American that ever lived. He had been most singularly victorious over all his private enemies, and had carried out his public projects with the hand of a conqueror. He died June 8, 1845.





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JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Another of the famous Faneuil Hall collection. Painted by.
William Page [1811-1885].



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS was born in that portion of Braintree, Mass., which has since become Quincy, July 11, 1767. His attendance at school was necessarily somewhat irregular, owing to the disturbed state of the country during the years immediately preceding the outbreak of the Revolution, yet he became a studious lad, and caught from his father, John Adams, the genuine patriotic spirit. This spirit was intensified by such sights as the burning of Charlestown and the bombardment of Boston, which he witnessed from an eminence near his home. He accompanied his father on his two diplomatic missions to Europe in 1778 and 1779; and during the second voyage the young man began to keep a diary which is still in existence. This diary and his letters to his parents were written in a style which would indicate that the writer was a person far more mature than a lad of eleven or twelve years. The habit of diary writing clung to him and was kept up during the greater part of his busy life, so that he left behind him a rich store-house of materials from which to draw the story of his life and times. The gravity of his youthful language reminds one of Lord Macaulay when at the same age.

He continued his studies in the classical and modern languages at the schools of Paris and Amsterdam, and at the University of Leyden, until July, 1781, when, not yet

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fourteen years of age, he accompanied Francis Dana, our envoy to Russia, to St. Petersburg, as his private secretary. He remained in Russia a little over a year, and then spent a winter in Sweden; after which he travelled somewhat extensively in the north of Europe, returning at length to Paris, where he became one of the secretaries of legation. He continued to devote the greater part of his time to his studies, though he saw much of the highest society. Upon his father's appointment as Minister to the Court of St. James in 1785, John Quincy Adams returned to America. His preference would have been to remain in Europe and engage in diplomatic affairs, but he wisely judged it to be more profitable for him to take a college course, which he did, entering the junior class at Harvard, and graduating with honor in 1787.

He next began the study of law at Newburyport. He was admitted to the bar July 15, 1790. His success in his profession, though not rapid, was satisfactory. Meanwhile he was venturing into the field of politics through the press. When the French envoy, Genet, made his impudent progress through the country, supported by his friends of the Jeffersonian party, John Quincy Adams gave a warm support to the Administration by a series of articles in the *Boston Centinel*. So much was Washington gratified by this performance, that, confident in the ability of the writer, he appointed him Minister Resident to Holland. Mr. Adams arrived at the Hague late in October, 1794; but he had hardly presented his credentials when the government of Holland was overthrown by the French Republicans. The duties connected with his office were not onerous, and he embraced the opportunity to study the customs of diplomacy and to perfect himself in the continental languages. Business of both public and private nature occasionally called him to London, where he made the acquaintance of the daughter of the American Consul; and to this lady, Louisa Catherine

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Johnson, he was married, July 26, 1797. She was his life companion and outlived him four years.

After a two years' residence among the Dutch, he was transferred by President Washington to the Portuguese Mission. Before, however, he could enter upon his new field of labor, his father became president, and he was sent to Prussia instead. He was the first Minister Resident of the United States at Berlin, and retained the office throughout his father's administration, negotiating an important treaty of commerce with Prussia. In 1801, he returned to America, and resumed the practice of the law in Boston.

He was elected to the Massachusetts State Senate in 1802, as a Federalist. He had hitherto acted with that party, but soon the proverbial independence of his family began to show itself. Much to the disgust of his party associates, he favored a representation of the Democratic minority in the State Executive Council. This was the commencement of that breach which ended in his practical separation from the dying Federalist Party. In 1803 he was elected to the United States Senate. At Washington he met with a chilling reception; and was made to feel the resentment which was borne toward his father, not only by the Republicans, but by the Hamiltonian wing of the Federalists as well.

We now come to his expulsion, so called, from the Federalist party. That party, whose existence as a power in American politics had ceased outside of New England, was very reluctant to call the English Government to account for those acts of retaliation on France which were so disastrous to American commerce. But Mr. Adams was very determined in his condemnation of the British outrages, and acted heartily in accord with the Democratic administration by favoring the passage of the embargo act in 1807. He was henceforth considered as a traitor to his party, and every kind of opprobrium was heaped upon him. The Massachusetts Legislature rebuked him by choosing his successor long before

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his term in the Senate had expired, and thereupon Mr. Adams resigned his seat in the spring of 1808.

Two days after Mr. Madison became president, he sent Mr. Adams' name to the Senate as Minister to Russia, and, after some delay, the nomination was confirmed. Mr. Adams sailed from Boston, in August, 1809, arriving in October in St. Petersburg, where he was received by the Emperor Alexander I. with great cordiality. The four and a half years' sojourn in Russia was a continuous round of gaiety and parade. His business amounted to little or nothing beyond ordinary consular matters. In his diary of this period, he has left us a vivid account of life at the Northern Capital during the Napoleonic Invasion, and of the rejoicings at the Conqueror's subsequent downfall. Mr. Adams was one of the commissioners on the part of the United States, who concluded the treaty of peace with England at Ghent, December 24, 1814. He then resided at Paris until the following May, when he attained the utmost round of the diplomatic ladder, by being accredited as Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of St. James. Although he sustained the honor of his country with great dignity at this high post, held by three successive generations of his family, he was scarcely in sympathy with the society in which he moved, and whose ways were so unlike his own. He finally left England and Europe, never again to return thither, June 17, 1817. His honorable career as a diplomatist was at an end. Immediately upon his arrival in the United States he became Mr. Monroe's Secretary of State.

Upon him now devolved the duty of conducting the negotiations with Spain relative to the cession of Florida. One treaty was rejected by Spain in 1819; but the cession was finally accomplished in 1821. In his dealings with European affairs he always maintained a position of strict neutrality, avoiding any connection with the quarrels of transatlantic nations. The closing years of Mr. Monroe's presidency were

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marked by a general scramble for his seat when it should be vacated. Clay, Crawford, Calhoun, Adams, and, finally, Jackson, entered the race. Among so many who were willing to accept the honor, the people were unable to make any choice. Mr. Calhoun was elected Vice-President. On the 9th of February, 1825, the House of Representatives elected John Quincy Adams President of the United States.

Mr. Adams, with very few exceptions, retained in the Federal offices, the old incumbents, large numbers of whom had actively opposed his election. He steadily refused to make removals on account of party differences, although urged to do so by his friends and advisers. In this, indeed, he followed the general example of the presidents up to his time. Not until he was succeeded by General Jackson did the present unfortunate system find currency, of sweeping all political opponents from office, and filling their places with men of the ruling party. Yet, in spite of Mr. Adams' just dealing, the infamous falsehood of the "corrupt bargain" between him and Mr. Clay was put in circulation, which, although often refuted, finds, to-day, some who believe it.

John Quincy Adams' administration, while marked by fewer important events than that of any other president in our history, was, however, a time of national prosperity. In 1825 the Erie Canal was opened amid great rejoicings. The campaign for the succeeding presidency may be said to have continued during the whole of Mr. Adams' term, as Jackson was put in nomination almost immediately after its commencement. As was the last contest, so was this, an entirely personal one. Mr. Adams, like his father, seldom, if ever, condescended to any action calculated merely to win the applause of the multitude, and usually declined attending popular gatherings lest he should be charged with electioneering in his own behalf.

The American system of high protective tariff attained its fullest development in the closing year of Mr. Adams'

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administration. The Tariff Law, enacted in the year 1828, imposed a higher average duty on imports than any law before or since. This high tariff, which was so obnoxious to the cotton-growing interest, that it received the name of the Tariff of Abominations, remained in force for four years, when it was greatly modified. Mr. Adams performed the duties of his high office with strict conscientiousness, but could not hold his own against the wonderful popularity of his soldier rival. In the election of 1828 he received but eighty-three electoral votes, while General Jackson received one hundred and seventy-eight.

Mr. Adams was the only one of our presidents who remained in the service of the public after his retirement from the executive chair. Mr. Johnson was elected to the United States Senate, and Mr. Tyler to the rebel congress, but both died without entering upon the duties of those offices. John Quincy Adams found himself, at the age of sixty-two, with a mortgaged property, the income from which would barely suffice to support his family in the plainest manner. After passing about two years in literary pursuits, and in constant anxiety lest he should be compelled to spend his last days in poverty, for he was now too old to think of starting anew as a lawyer, he was elected to the National House of Representatives. He had always considered it his duty to accept any office to which his fellow-citizens might see fit to appoint him, and now he thought it no dishonor, though he had filled the most exalted position in the nation, to accept this humbler one. By repeated re-elections he retained his seat in the Lower House for nearly sixteen years, the most brilliant years of his long and honorable career.

As time rolled on he came to be regarded with veneration by his colleagues, and men knew him as "the Old Man Eloquent." He had been elected by the new Whig party; but still continued to maintain that remarkable independence of character for which he was so highly distinguished. His

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greatest glory was his championship of the anti-slavery cause. He began his congressional career by introducing petitions against slavery. Soon the Southern members succeeded in getting a vote passed that no more such petitions should be received by the House. This famous "gag rule," as it was called, was renewed at the opening session of each successive Congress. Mr. Adams always moved to have it rescinded, but was, time after time, voted down. But the grand old man lived to see his motion finally prevail, and the rule was rescinded in December, 1844. Mr. Adams' long fight was won, and he wrote in his diary, "Blessed, forever blessed, be the name of God." We have no space for a detailed description of his heroic struggle against the insolent slaveholding majority; but whoever will read the history of those stormy times will find nothing grander in the annals of legislation than his magnificent displays of courage and determination.

Mr. Adams was struck with paralysis while on the street in Boston, November 19, 1846. From this stroke he partially recovered, and when he resumed his seat in Congress, every member rose to his feet as a tribute of respect to the venerable statesman. On February 21, 1848, as the speaker was about to put a motion, he was interrupted by the cry that Mr. Adams had fallen. The House immediately adjourned in great confusion. He was carried to the speaker's room, and there remained until the evening of the 23d, when he died. His own generation hardly realized his worth, but succeeding ones have placed his name high upon the roll of those whom they delight to honor.





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JOSIAH QUINCY.

By Gilbert Stuart. Owned by the city of Boston, and
removed to the Art Museum from Faneuil
Hall, in 1876, for safe keeping.

JOSIAH QUINCY.



JOSIAH QUINCY was born at Boston, February 4, 1772. His father, who died in 1775, was a prominent Boston lawyer and patriot; while his uncle, Samuel Quincy, was Solicitor-General of the Province, and a loyalist, going to England at the evacuation of Boston in 1776. His maternal grandfather, William Phillips, was the principal founder of the academy at Andover, Mass., which bears his name. Josiah Quincy and his mother lived with this gentleman until 1778, when, Josiah, being a noisy child, and troublesome to his aged grandfather, he was sent to the academy at Andover. Young Quincy remained at Phillips Academy eight years, and entered Harvard at the age of fourteen. After graduating, in the class of 1790, he entered upon the study of the law, residing with his mother in Boston, and was admitted to the bar in 1793.

As he moved among the most refined society of the town, which was then almost exclusively Federalist in its politics, he naturally espoused the principles of that party. In after years, when it had gone out of existence, he acted with no particular political organization, but always preferred to call himself a Federalist. Mr. Quincy was married in 1797 to a New York lady by the name of Morton. It may be noted, as illustrating the slow methods of travelling then in vogue, that the wedding journey, from New York to Boston, occu-

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ped more than five days. His mother, to whom he was greatly attached, died in the following year.

He was a candidate for Congress in 1800; but was defeated by his democratic opponent. In the spring of 1804 he was elected to the State Senate, his first public office, although he had now been in active political life for ten years or more. In the fall of the same year he was elected to Congress; elected as a Federalist upon the first of the two occasions in which Massachusetts has cast her electoral vote for a democratic president. While a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, he first manifested that decided opposition to slavery for which he was so noted during the remainder of his long life.

Upon taking his seat in Congress he found himself one of a small minority, strangely enough under the leadership of a Democrat who had quarrelled with Jefferson, John Randolph, of Virginia. Mr. Quincy did not relish this combination, but submitted to it with a good grace. In the following Congress, and during the remainder of his service in that body, he was himself foremost in shaping the policy of the little Federalist minority. He made a celebrated speech in November, 1808, upon the Embargo, showing the impossibility of its enforcement in New England. In February, 1811, he made a speech opposing the admission of Louisiana. In this speech, he unfortunately advanced the opinion that Congress has no right to make new States out of territory acquired by purchase or conquest, as Louisiana had been, and that in event of the passage of the bill for admission, the old States would be freed from their obligation to remain in the Union. Of course, this dangerous doctrine is not to be apologized for. Mr. Quincy was led to accept it because he foresaw that the admission of Louisiana meant the indefinite perpetuation of the slave power.

In January, 1813, he made another of his celebrated speeches, this time in opposition to the proposed invasion of

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Canada. Mr. Clay, then speaker of the House, made a reply in which he heaped every kind of abuse on Mr. Quincy's head. Josiah Quincy remained in Congress eight years. At the end of that time, wearied by his constant struggle against the administration, and perceiving that the slave-holding States had such a strong hold upon the government that there was little prospect of his ever being in accord with the majority, he declined a fifth election in 1812, and in the following March returned to his Boston home, never again to enter the arena of national politics.

He was at once elected to the State Senate, where he found a much pleasanter state of affairs, for here the Federalists still held a majority, and he easily secured the passage of resolutions condemning the war policy of the administration, and praying for a repeal of the act by which Louisiana was admitted.

Mr. Quincy was very happy in his private life. His winters were passed at his town residence, his summers at his country seat at Quincy. Here he had the honor of entertaining many distinguished visitors. Although opposed to the war, yet he was one of the first to prepare for defence upon the rumor of the proposed landing of the British in the vicinity of Boston. A troop of cavalry, known as the Hussars, was raised, and he was commissioned captain, afterward attaining the rank of major. But he was never called upon to perform any more arduous service than to act as escort for the governor, and the Hussars were disbanded at the return of peace in 1815. He received a visit from President Monroe during his famous tour in 1817. Having offended the leaders of his party by opposing the separation of Maine as a State in 1819, he was not nominated for the Senate at the ensuing election, but was chosen to represent the town of Boston in the Lower House. In this same year, 1820, he was a member of the convention which enacted the first nine amendments to the Constitution of Massachusetts.

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He was chosen Speaker of the House in January, 1821, and also in the following Legislature; but resigned this office in 1822, to accept the position of Judge of the Boston Municipal Court. One of his rulings as judge has become famous. It was, that in a libel suit the defendant may plead the truth of his allegations. This was considered as contrary to the common law at the time, but has since become an established rule, both in the United States and in England.

Boston became a city in 1822. At the second mayoralty election, in 1823, Mr. Quincy was chosen chief magistrate of his native city, and he still continues to be held in remembrance as Boston's most distinguished and most efficient mayor. Every department of the municipal economy received his personal attention. He was himself chairman of all the committees of the Board of Alderman, and so bore the chief burden of the public business. He instituted great reforms in the methods of caring for the city poor. He established the first House of Correction, thus separating criminals from paupers; and also the House of Reformation for juvenile offenders, to separate that class from the older and more hardened offenders. He suppressed dens of infamy with a high hand, and introduced reforms into the Fire Department. One of the important events of his administration was the building of the market which by universal consent bears his name. During his mayoralty, General Lafayette twice visited the city. In August, 1824, he was accorded a royal welcome by the municipal and state authorities. He was met at the Roxbury line by Mayor Quincy, and escorted by a grand procession to the State House, and from thence to the house which had been fitted up for his use. Mr. and Mrs. Quincy entertained the Marquis, both at their city house and at Quincy. Lafayette's second visit was in June, 1825, when he attended the laying of the corner-stone of Bunker-Hill Monument.

On July 4, 1826, the fiftieth, or jubilee celebration of the

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Declaration of Independence, Mayor Quincy delivered the oration before the city government. On the evening of that day he learned of the death of his intimate friend and neighbor, at Quincy, Ex-President John Adams. Not until five days afterward was it known in Boston that that same glorious anniversary had also witnessed the death of the other illustrious ex-president, Thomas Jefferson. During all these years Mr. Quincy was in an extensive correspondence with many of the leading citizens of the country, and also with persons of note in Europe. But, like all men who carry on reforms, in his authoritative way he at last provoked a certain amount of opposition, especially by his course with regard to the Fire Department, having refused to appoint an unsuitable person, of some local notoriety, to the position of chief engineer. In all elections in those days, a majority was required to elect. After two unsuccessful trials in 1828, in both of which Mr. Quincy received a large plurality, but failed by a few votes of a majority, he withdrew his name as a candidate for re-election, and Mr. Otis was chosen to succeed him.

January 29, 1829, Mr. Quincy was elected President of Harvard College, and he removed with his family to Cambridge in the following May. During his presidency the College library was much enlarged, and Gore Hall built for its reception. The astronomical observatory was also built and equipped with the proper apparatus. He rendered himself unpopular, for a time, among the undergraduates, by a reform which he introduced. Up to this time a student at the University was considered to be privileged from arrest for any misdemeanor committed within the college precincts. Mr. Quincy insisted that they should be amenable to the State laws the same as any ordinary mortals, and the students were forced to submit. In 1836 the College celebrated the two-hundredth anniversary of its foundation. Mr. Quincy's administration extended to sixteen years of unrelenting toil

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for the University. As to his private life, these were years of singular felicity and freedom from sickness or trouble. He set a most worthy example for the students under his charge. It is said, that, in all the sixteen years of his presidency, he missed religious service at the Chapel on Sunday, only once, and only three times was he absent from prayers. Never in that time did he allow card playing in his house, nor attend a play. He finally resigned his honorable office, September 16, 1845.

The remainder of his life was passed largely in literary pursuits. He published several valuable works; among them, a history of his native city, a life of his father, and one of the second Adams, and an historical account of Harvard College. He continued, even to his last hours, to take a lively interest in all public questions, and kept himself amply informed with regard to all the stirring events of the time. He also found time to devote his personal attention to his farm at Quincy, and to his large real estate interests in Boston, as well as to act as trustee for various public institutions. In 1852, he purchased the city wharf property for four hundred and eleven thousand dollars. On the first of September, 1850, Mrs. Quincy died, at the age of seventy-seven. Mr. Quincy was most heartily in accord with Mr. Lincoln in the trying hours of his administration. He retained full confidence in the final triumph of the North in the great struggle; and saw from the first outbreak of the rebellion, that it must, in the end, result in wiping out the disgrace of human slavery from the land. His grandson, Samuel Miller Quincy, entered the service of his country and became a colonel and brevet brigadier general.

Although not possessing a remarkably strong constitution, he enjoyed throughout his life great freedom from disease, owing to the strictness and regularity of his personal habits. In December, 1861, he received an injury to his hip by a fall, and after that was obliged to avail himself of the service of

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a valet, and to abstain from out-of-door exercise except in a carriage. The first day of January, 1863, was a glad day for him, as it witnessed the liberation of millions of those bondmen whose cause he had had for so many years at heart. He had the pleasure of receiving on that day, from Mrs. Lincoln, a portrait of our great martyr president. In February, 1864, he celebrated his ninety-second birthday, being extremely feeble in body, but still having the full use of his intellectual faculties. In June, he made his last journey to Quincy, where he died July 1, 1864. His funeral, which was held, according to his request, in his own beloved city, was very largely attended by citizens of all ranks, creeds and parties, as well as by the State and City governments. His remains rest at Mount Auburn.





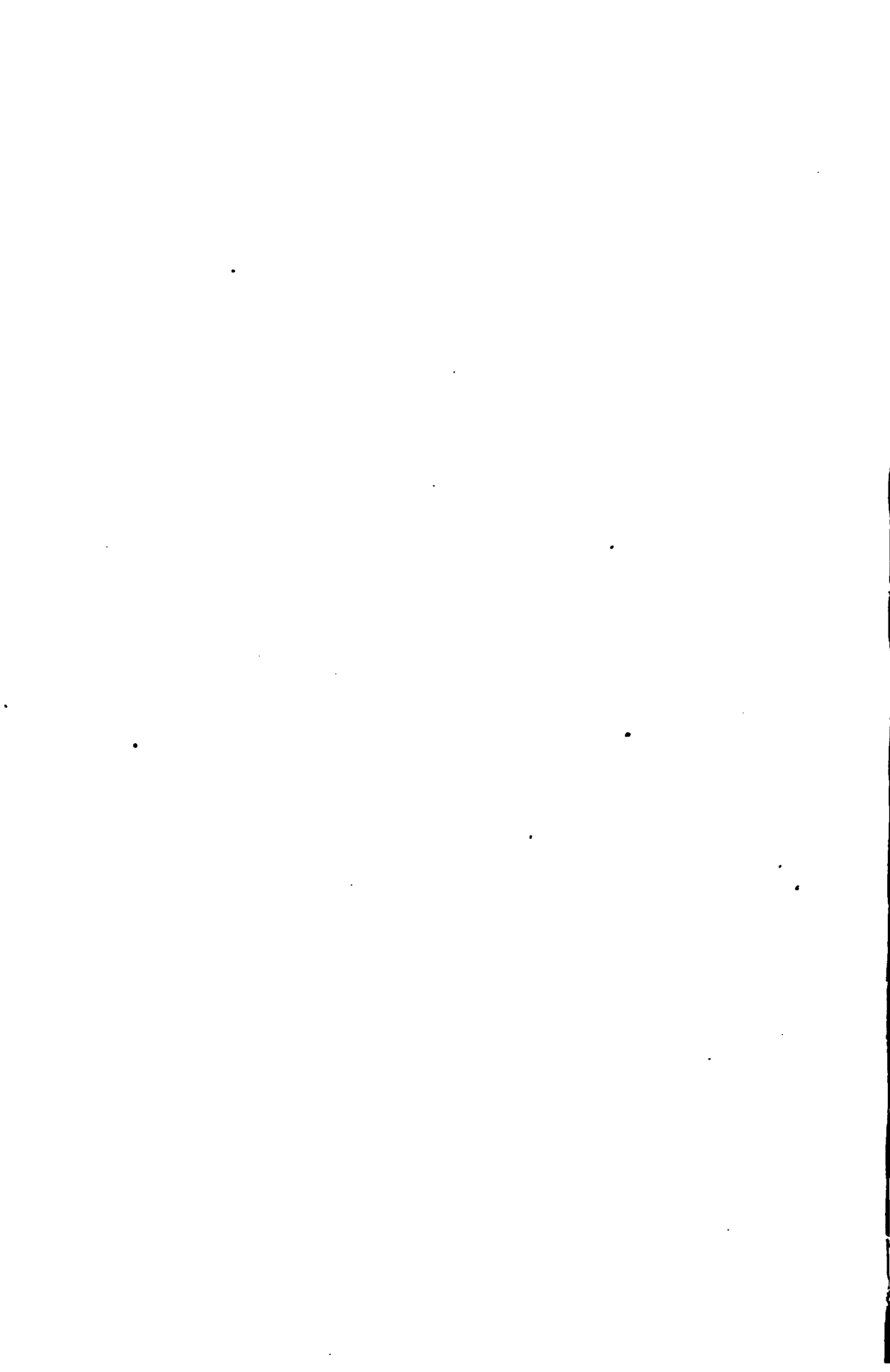
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WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

From a portrait in the possession of Bettie Harrison Eaton,
of North Bend, Ohio.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON was born February 9, 1773, at Berkeley, Va. His father was Benjamin Harrison, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and several times governor of Virginia. William Henry graduated from Hampden-Sidney College at the age of seventeen. Like many other young men, in his first choice of a profession he made a mistake. He went to Philadelphia to study medicine, but soon found that he was not to be a physician. He was a born soldier. Among his earliest recollections were the struggles of the old Continental Army and the final glorious triumph at Yorktown. He was too young to take any active part in the Revolution, yet he longed for an opportunity to imitate the example of his patriotic fellow-countrymen. That opportunity was at hand, and he eagerly embraced it.

Soon after the close of the Revolutionary War, the great tide of emigration began to roll westward into the unsettled country between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, north of the Ohio. This North-western Territory, as it was then called, and which now constitutes the rich and populous States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, began to be dotted over with the farms and hamlets of the industrious settlers. No slave could exist in all the vast domain. But the unscrupulous British traders of Canada were jealous of

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this invasion of what had been hitherto their exclusive field of traffic with the natives, and so they began to incite the savages to make war on the settlers. In this nefarious design they received countenance and aid from the British Commander at Detroit, which post, in open violation of the treaty of 1783, had never been given up to the Americans. When young Harrison entered upon his professional studies, the war had broken out with all the attendant horrors of savage barbarity. General Harmer was sent against the Indians in 1790, with a large force, but was routed by them near the present city of Fort Wayne, Indiana. In the following year, new troops were sent out, but the Indians continued their ravages, in spite of occasional checks and the destruction of many of their villages. Harrison was frail in body, but valiant at heart, and, against the entreaties of friends, he bade farewell to his medical studies, and offered his services in defence of the settlers. He was commissioned as ensign by Washington, being then but nineteen years old.

Crossing the Alleghanies on foot to Pittsburgh, he proceeded from thence down the Ohio to Fort Washington, now Cincinnati, and here joined the army under General St. Clair, who had recently suffered a terrible defeat. He soon obtained the especial approbation of his commander for the manner in which he performed important duties assigned to him, and was promoted to the rank of lieutenant. General St. Clair was succeeded by General Wayne, the "Mad Anthony" of the Revolution, who conducted successful campaigns during the years 1793 and 1794, in which Lieutenant Harrison bore a conspicuous part. For his bravery at the great battle on the Maumee, August 20, 1794, in which the savages were finally brought into submission, he was highly commended by General Wayne in his official report, and was raised to the rank of captain. Shortly afterward he was placed in charge of Fort Washington, and intrusted with the duty of occupying the frontier posts upon their evacuation by the British

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according to the terms of Jay's treaty. During this period he was married to Anna Symmes, the daughter of a frontiersman.

In 1797 he resigned his commission, and was appointed Secretary of the Territory. While acting in this capacity, he proposed a modification of the United States land laws, in the interest of the poorer settlers, so that they could purchase small farms directly from the government; they having been heretofore compelled to buy from rich speculators, as the government had only disposed of land in tracts of four thousand acres. Mr. Harrison was chosen Territorial Delegate to Congress in 1799, and secured the passage of a law embodying these reforms.

In 1800 the North-west Territory was divided into two portions. The western part, including the present States of Indiana, Wisconsin and Illinois, was erected into the territory of Indiana, and Mr. Harrison was appointed to the governorship by President Adams. He was invested with extensive powers both over the white settlers and also over the Indians. So faithfully did he discharge the duties of his office, that he was several times re-appointed, by successive administrations of opposite parties. Twelve years he held his important post, and few men in any position have gained so brilliant a reputation for ability and just dealing as he did during that period. But even the most upright of men cannot escape the voice of calumny. He made many treaties with the Indians, mutually advantageous for both natives and settlers; but he was charged by a foreigner, named McIntosh, with having defrauded the Indians in one of these treaties. The Governor promptly had the matter well aired in a court of justice, was triumphantly acquitted, and obtained four thousand dollars' damages from his false accuser. One third of this sum he gave to the children of soldiers who had been killed in battle, the remainder he restored to the wretched McIntosh. He declined to make any use whatever

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of his official position to further his private fortune, even in cases where he might have done so with perfect propriety.

In 1810 occurred his famous interview at Vincennes with the great Indian chief, Tecumseh. This chief, who afterward held the rank of brigadier-general in the British Army, had acquired, together with his brother "the Prophet," a wonderful influence over his people, by whom he was regarded with feelings of veneration, and had fomented a general conspiracy for the destruction of the American settlers. Anxious for a peaceful settlement of these troubles, if such were possible, Harrison sent for Tecumseh to meet him at Vincennes. He came, attended by a much greater force than the Governor had expected, and to meet which he was but poorly prepared. The proud chief refused to enter a house or seat himself upon a chair. He began an eloquent harangue, demanding the restoration of the lands of the settlers to their original owners. As he grew more earnest, he charged the Governor with dishonesty in dealing with the Indians, flourishing his tomahawk as he spoke. His action was imitated by his followers, who were sufficiently numerous to overpower the force under Harrison's command at the time. Harrison drew his sword, but remained immovable. His small guard came up, but he ordered them not to fire. Then, in firm tones, he refused to hold any further converse with Tecumseh, on account of his insolence, and the council broke up without bloodshed. But war could not be avoided, and Harrison made his preparations accordingly.

The savages renewed their outrages. Governor Harrison warned Tecumseh that he would inflict severe punishment upon the Indians unless they desisted. He collected a large force, while the Indians looked for aid to the tribes of the South. In September, 1811, he took command of a body of Indiana militia, and United States regulars, and marched toward the Prophet's Town. His force consisted of about a thousand men, all told, and was well drilled and disciplined.

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Early in November he encamped near the Indian Town. On the morning of the seventh, his camp was attacked by the savages. A fierce battle ensued, in which Harrison exposed himself fearlessly and was several times struck by the bullets of the enemy, who had been well supplied with ammunition and fire-arms by the British in Canada. The Indians fought with desperation, but could not withstand the bayonet charge, and the onslaught of the American dragoons. They were routed and scattered, and the next day Governor Harrison destroyed the Prophet's camp. This was the renowned battle of Tippecanoe, so called from the river on whose banks it was fought. The title of "Hero of Tippecanoe" ever afterward clung to the victor, and was used as a watchword in the presidential campaign of 1840.

The aid which the savages received from the English in these outrages was one of the prominent causes of the war which in the following year was declared against Great Britain by President Madison. The impostor who had prophesied a great victory for the Indians was now rejected by them, but his great brother Tecumseh entered the British service with his followers. August 16, 1812, the cowardly General Hull surrendered Detroit, and with it the whole of Michigan, to the British. Soon afterward, Governor Harrison was commissioned major-general in the regular army and placed in command of all the forces in the North-west. His instructions from the War Department left him to act according to his own best judgment, and he was promised ten thousand troops. He was to drive back the British and Indians who were swarming into the country from Canada, and to retake Detroit. To do this he was compelled to lead his army through hundreds of miles of morass and tangled wilderness. This he accomplished after a long series of weary marches, encampments, and battles with the inhuman foe.

By the summer of 1813 he had his force on the shores of Lake Erie, ready to coöperate with Perry's fleet. September

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10, that gallant officer performed his renowned exploit of capturing an entire English fleet. Harrison at once began a movement of the land forces, and on September 20th entered Detroit without resistance, the British under Proctor having fled. They were pursued by the Americans, and overthrown October 5th, at the battle of the Thames, in which engagement the Indian chief Tecumseh was slain. Harrison bore all the hardships of a private soldier, and was idolized by his men. This last victory secured peace on the north-western frontier, and Harrison led his forces to Buffalo, from whence he was ordered to Sackett's Harbor, where an expedition was being formed against Montreal. And now occurred one of those cases of stupid interference by the civil authorities with a victorious general's movements which are so exasperating when viewed in the light of subsequent history. For some unknown reason, the Secretary of War became unfriendly to General Harrison, and removed him from his command under the pretext of a leave of absence, and, in consequence, the General resigned his commission May 11, 1814. His high renown as a warrior was evinced by the enthusiasm with which he was everywhere greeted during his homeward progress. For the victory on the Thames, he received from Congress a gold medal.

In the following summer General Harrison was appointed to coöperate with Governor Cass of Michigan in settling the matters in dispute between the government and the Indian Tribes. In 1816, he was elected to the National House of Representatives from Ohio. When the resolutions of censure upon General Jackson's course in the Seminole War were before the House, they received Harrison's support. He could not sanction insubordination; but he fully recognized and acknowledged Jackson's worth and ability as a soldier. But of course Jackson never forgave him; he never forgave anyone whom he took it into his head to consider as an enemy, unless, as it is said, he forgave them all in a lump shortly

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before his death. General Harrison was a member of the Ohio State Senate in 1819, and was a Presidential Elector in 1824, casting his vote for Henry Clay. In the latter year he was also elected to the United States Senate. Late in the year 1828, he was appointed Minister to the Republic of Colombia. His stay in South America was only a brief one, for upon President Jackson's accession, in the following year, he was recalled.

He now remained in retirement at his farm at North Bend, Ohio, for some eleven years. He lived in comfort, but not in affluence, passing his time in agricultural pursuits, making speeches before farmers' societies, inculcating temperance, and dealing with slavery in the usual gingerly manner of the Whigs of his day. In 1836, he received seventy-three votes for the presidency, but Mr. Van Buren was elected. Four years later came the memorable hard-cider and log-cabin campaign, and the tables were turned. He received two hundred and thirty-four electoral votes, and Mr. Van Buren only sixty.

General Harrison's honorable career was nearly ended. He was sixty-eight years of age, older than any other president before or since, at the time of his inauguration. His journey to the Capitol from his log-cabin home was one continued ovation. On the fourth of March, 1841, he took the oath of office, and in exactly one month from that day he died, sincerely mourned by an entire nation.





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JOHN RANDOLPH.

From a painting, by Chester Harding, in the Corcoran Gallery
of Art, at Washington, D. C.

JOHN RANDOLPH.



JOHN RANDOLPH, of Roanoke, was born at Cawson's, Virginia, June 2, 1773. He came of one of the most exalted families of the old Virginia aristocracy, and in his veins flowed the royal blood of Pocahontas. His early boyhood was passed amid the changes and alarms of the Revolution. He was left fatherless in 1775, and three years later his mother remarried. John and his mother, now Mrs. St. George Tucker, were removed far up the Appomattox to Bizarre in 1781, when Governor Jefferson and his Legislature, and many of the inhabitants of Eastern Virginia, were flying before the British. Here he grew up in aristocratic ignorance. When the war closed he was ten years old, familiar with horses, dogs, and negroes, a good rider, a boxer, and a cock-fighter, undisciplined, and with a violent temper,—in short, a genuine Virginia gentleman's son. His reading, up to this time, was chiefly confined to novels. Left largely to follow the bent of his own inclinations, his education was unsystematic in the extreme. He had a few months' schooling in his eighth year, was sent to school at Williamsburg in 1783, where he remained about a year, and then forgot much of what he had learned, during a long visit to his step-father's connections in Bermuda. In 1787, he went to Princeton, and, in 1788, to Columbia College in New York. While here, almost as a matter of course to a young gentleman

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of his stamp, he was engaged in a duel. He was accustomed in after years to call himself an ignorant man. In these early days, he professed the fashionable infidelity, and admired Voltaire. Throughout life, his character was a strange compound of good and evil, and no word better describes it, than the epithet "eccentric," which is so often applied to him.

While at Columbia he came in contact with the politicians in New York, then the seat of the National Government, and soon became far more deeply interested in the debates of Congress than in his studies. He followed the government in its removal to Philadelphia in 1790. Here he picked up a little law in the office of his relative, Edmund Randolph, Washington's Attorney-General, and also a little medicine; but spent the most of his time in aimless idleness. He came of age in 1794, and then returned to Virginia to look after his property. He embraced the principles of the anti-federalists with all the impetuosity of his fiery nature. For New England people and New England practices he had a special aversion, and was, of course, bitterly opposed to the adoption of the Constitution of the United States.

John Randolph entered Congress in 1799, and became conspicuous as a debater from the first. On one occasion he saw fit to characterize the Army of the United States as a handful of ragamuffins, and in consequence he was publicly insulted at a playhouse by two military gentlemen. He entered a complaint to the President, couched in highly bombastic language, and thereby incurred the censure of the House. Then he fell into one of those fits of mental depression, to which he was periodically subject. When the Republicans came into power, in 1801, with President Jefferson, Randolph became chairman of the important Committee on Ways and Means. At the age of thirty he controlled his party in the House like a dictator. Many of his speeches were remarkable exhibitions of his powers of invective, characterized alike by their violence and their injudi-

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cious statements. His influence, however, was limited to the lower House. He managed the impeachment of a United States Judge before the Senate, and signally failed in his attempt to secure conviction. But the extremity to which he carried his opinions regarding State rights gradually undermined his authority. He began to be regarded by Northern democrats with distrust, and even Mr. Jefferson thought the friendship of so violent a partisan to be dangerous. At length he turned squarely against the policy of the administration and joined the opposition, thereby taking the position for which he seemed by nature to be best fitted.

After 1806, he never regained his ascendancy. The remainder of his career in Congress was marked by strange eccentricities, and the extreme violence of his speeches have seldom, if ever, been equalled. He would often talk in such a wild and incoherent manner, without apparent attention to the matter under debate, that people began to regard him somewhat in the light of an insane man. Unfortunately for himself, he added largely to his natural nervousness and irritability by an intemperate use of intoxicants. He was a member of the grand jury at Richmond, in 1807, which indicted Aaron Burr for treason. He continued to be re-elected to his seat in Congress by his democratic constituents, in spite of the fact that he now almost invariably voted with the small federalist minority, until by his opposition to the war with England he finally alienated even his most faithful friends, and in 1813 he lost his election. His health gave way in 1811, and for the remainder of his life he was a confirmed invalid.

Prominent among John Randolph's eccentricities was his greed for wealth. Money and land became the objects of a most inordinate desire. Moreover, he quarrelled with his relations, and seemed to delight in finding new means for making himself miserable. He had long made his home at Bizarre, with his brother. That brother was now dead, and

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after quarrelling with the widow, John Randolph returned to his own estate at Roanoke, and thereafter usually added his territorial title to his signature. It is hard to understand the fascinating influence that this strange man possessed; but it enabled him, in 1815, to regain his popularity with his constituency, and they sent him back to Congress. It also led men who differed widely from him in every particular, to court his acquaintance, and among his most confidential friends may be mentioned Josiah Quincy of Massachusetts. He frequently attended the sessions of the House dressed in a hunting suit, spurs on his boots, and his riding-whip in his hand. He abhorred Henry Clay, and used all his powers of eloquence and political intrigue against the ambitious designs of that gentleman. His attendance in the House of Representatives became more and more infrequent during the latter years of his membership, and he refused to be a candidate for election to the fifteenth Congress.

Mr. Randolph, by his long, practical experience and keen observation, made good, in great measure, the defects of his early education, and in this his remarkably retentive memory was of the greatest service to him. Upon the occasion of a visit made to England in 1822, in the vain hope of restoring his shattered health, he was the object of marked attention. The visit was repeated in 1824, but with no favorable results. In 1825, he was unexpectedly elected to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate. Not long after taking his seat, during a debate upon a message of the president—John Quincy Adams—he used his memorable expressions of contempt for Mr. Clay, which resulted in a duel between the two. After working himself into a mad frenzy, Randolph, alluding to the supposed intrigue between Clay and Adams, by which the former was to be made Secretary of State as his price for securing the presidency for the latter, said: “I was defeated, horse, foot and dragoons—cut up and clean broke down by the coalition of Blifil and Black George—by the combina-

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tion, unheard of till then, of the Puritan with the black-leg." Mr. Clay, resenting the appellation of a black-leg, and further of a "rotten mackerel," as well as certain of Randolph's reflections upon his veracity, challenged Mr. Randolph. The affair took place April 8, 1826, happily with no more serious result than a bullet-hole in Randolph's outer garment. His term in the Senate was but a brief one, and he was not re-elected, but his faithful district again chose him a member of the Lower House, and he was a member of the Virginia Constitutional Convention in 1829.

Mr. Randolph was already in an advanced stage of consumption when *Président* Jackson appointed him to a special mission to Russia in 1830. He sailed for Europe in June, and, after spending some time in England, reached St. Petersburg in September. He found the climate unbearable, and consequently remained at his post but a short time—long enough, however for this violent Republican to lose his head in the presence of royalty, actually going on his knees before the Empress. He soon returned to England, where he continued to reside for nearly a year, at the expense of his country, receiving with delight the adulations of the British aristocracy. He returned home in October, 1831. During the nullification excitement he opposed President Jackson, and was one of Calhoun's warmest supporters. John Randolph died at Philadelphia, June 24, 1833, while just on the point of making another journey to Europe. His will, made in 1821, provided for the liberation of his slaves. A later one, made not long before his death, was set aside on the ground of insanity. Few men of his time received so large a share of the attention of the public, and probably no man in official position, ever accomplished less for the good of his fellow citizens than did John Randolph, with his brilliant, but erratic genius.

With all his faults he had a warm heart, and was noted for the kindness and consideration with which he treated his

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bondmen, whom, as has been mentioned, he manumitted in his will. Owing to the obstacles interposed by his half-brothers, the Tuckers, it was thirteen years before the terms of that will became operative, and then the "Randolph people" as they were called, migrated in a body to Ohio, where a tract of land had been provided for them out of the Randolph estate. Unfortunately, they were driven from their property by alien settlers, and forced to remove to various parts of the country. Some of these people are still living, and, with their descendants, have not yet given up the hope of regaining the lands from which they were driven, and which are theirs by an undoubted right.





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LYMAN BEECHER.

From a portrait in the possession of Mrs. Henry Ward Beecher,
at Brooklyn, N. Y. It was painted during Dr. Beecher's
second residence in Boston just after he had
retired from active duty as President
of Lane Theological Seminary.

LYMAN BEECHER.



HIS distinguished clergyman was born October 12, 1775, in New Haven, Conn. His father was a well-read blacksmith. Having lost his mother in his early infancy he was confided to the care of an uncle at North Guilford, and there he received his schooling, and grew up to be a hard-working farmer's lad. At sixteen he went to New Haven to prepare for college, and entered Yale in 1793. He found the college in a somewhat depressed condition, poorly supplied with apparatus, and with the discipline at a low ebb. Many of the students were openly infidels; but of this fashionable folly he never became a victim. He did, however, indulge to some extent in card playing, window smashing, and such like pastimes incident to a student's life. During his second year Dr. Timothy Dwight became president, and effected a great improvement both in the college at large and also in Mr. Beecher's own habits. He became thoughtful, and, at length, religious. His piety was, of course, of the stern old puritanical sort, but in after years he entirely eliminated the spirit of bigotry from his nature, and became a large-hearted, liberal divine. To lessen the burden of his expenses, which were borne by his father and his uncle jointly, he bought out the butler's stock of provisions, and furnished the students with sugar, watermelons, tobacco, beer, "and other necessities of students not furnished by the steward in the commons." After graduating, he took the divinity course, having decided to become a preacher of the gospel.

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Almost immediately after receiving his license in the year 1798, he was called to the church at East Hampton, Long Island, nominally a Presbyterian, but in fact an Independent, or Congregationalist Church. After preaching here for some nine months, he received his ordination, September 5, 1799, and became the settled pastor at East Hampton. Two weeks later he married Roxana Foote of Guilford. Of the children of this marriage, two lived to acquire a world wide celebrity, Henry Ward, the foremost preacher of his time, and Harriet, the author of the most widely read work of fiction of our day, "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Mr. Beecher's duties at East Hampton were very laborious; he often preached every day in the week, in outlying districts, besides faithfully attending to his pastoral work. His mode of living in those days could not have been very extravagant; the year following his settlement he purchased a house and five acres of land for eight hundred dollars, afterwards laying out three hundred dollars more in repairs. No carpets in those good old days; the first one to be used in the town was Mrs. Beecher's own handiwork, and was regarded by the neighbors somewhat in the light of a sinful extravagance. But the young couple were quite contented and happy in their humble home. Mr. Beecher taught school for a while, in addition to his other work, but was glad to give it up. After a time Mrs. Beecher established a select school and taught French and painting besides the ordinary branches, thereby adding something to the little store, and contributing to the support of the steadily increasing family. Mr. Beecher's life was by no means all dull work. He enjoyed gunning and fishing, played the violin sometimes to the disturbance of his wife's school and had his joke. In 1806 he preached a sermon against duelling, which in after years had the strange fortune to be used as a democratic campaign document, and contributed materially towards the defeat of Henry Clay for the presidency.

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After eleven years spent on Long Island, he found his salary inadequate to the support of his family, and so closed his first pastorate, and accepted a call from the church at Litchfield, Connecticut. He was quite fortunate in disposing of his property at East Hampton, realizing a profit of one thousand dollars over its original cost. His increasing temporal prosperity is also indicated by the fact that when he went to East Hampton his possessions were all contained in one little trunk, but when he removed to Litchfield they made "four great loads." His ministry at Litchfield was successful from the first, and the church began to increase in numbers. About this time he became alarmed at the general prevalence of the excessive use of spirits by all classes of the community. What finally roused his righteous indignation on this subject, was a certain ordination service where an enormous amount of liquor was consumed by the clergymen, who became, if not actually drunken, at least far too convivial for men of their cloth. He set to work in good earnest to check, if possible, this evil, thus taking a conspicuous place among the pioneers of the temperance movement, a cause to which he never wavered in his devotion during the remainder of his life. Through his efforts a great reformation was accomplished in the drinking habits of the people, and his influence began to be felt throughout New England. He purchased a comfortable home at Litchfield; but after a few years became somewhat embarrassed financially, when his people generously raised three thousand dollars for him besides paying him two years salary in advance. In 1816, Mrs. Beecher died.

In Connecticut, the old federalist party, and the Congregational Church were essentially one and the same. The party held firm control of the State government long after it had hopelessly lost its power in other sections of the country; but in 1817 it was at length overthrown by the democrats. When, in the following year, by the adoption of

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the new Constitution, the separation took place in Connecticut between Church and State, and the Congregationalists ceased to possess the peculiar privileges of an establishment, Mr. Beecher was much depressed by what he considered a great calamity to religion; but he lived to acknowledge, with the more mature judgment of his later years, that it was "the best thing that ever happened to the State of Connecticut."

Mr. Beecher made his first visit to Boston in 1817, and upon this occasion began his long course of determined opposition to the Unitarian movement then agitating New England. While in Boston he became acquainted with Harriet Porter of Portland, Maine, who became, a few months later, the second Mrs. Beecher. The wedding journey from Portland was made in the old family chaise, and the stepmother was cordially received by the family at Litchfield. Mr. Beecher had by this time acquired a very extended reputation, especially as a revival preacher. In the spring of 1823 he made another visit to Boston, and preached there for several weeks with great effect. After he had been settled at Litchfield for over fifteen years, he again found his salary insufficient to support his family and provide for his sons at college, and accordingly he asked for a dismissal. Even before he had announced his decision to his congregation, he had received a call from the Hanover Church in Boston, which was, after due deliberation, accepted.

Mr. Beecher entered upon his third pastorate in 1826. He was well pleased to be in the old puritan city, now become the stronghold of Unitarianism, which he regarded as the most dangerous of heresies, and he labored zealously to arouse the dormant puritan faith. His success was very marked, and as the result of his preaching there followed one of the most wide-spread religious movements ever known in Boston; affecting not only his own church and denomination, but most of the others as well. Mr. Beecher's ministry

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in Boston extended over a period of six years and during this time he attained the height of his fame as a preacher, a theological writer and a controversialist. Early in 1830 his church was destroyed by fire and in the fall of the same year he was elected president, and professor of theology in the newly established Lane Theological Seminary at Cincinnati, Ohio. He accepted this call to what he fondly hoped would prove a wider sphere of usefulness, and after seeing his church in Boston once more established in new quarters, he removed to his new home in the West in 1832, and so New England lost her foremost preacher. He also became, in the year following, the pastor of the Second Presbyterian Church of Cincinnati.

Mr. Beecher was not fairly settled here before trouble arose. Some few of the very conservative Presbyterians looked askance at the growing liberality of his views, though it would require an almost microscopical investigation to determine wherein he differed from the most rigid of the orthodox theologians. Distrust ripened into opposition, and he was accused of heresy. He was tried before his presbytery in 1835, conducted his case with the skill of an accomplished lawyer, and was triumphantly acquitted. His accusers took an appeal to the Synod, and were again defeated. They prepared to bring the case before the General Assembly; but seeing that the same result was likely to ensue there as at the two previous attempts and not wishing to have the Court of last appeal set the seal of its official sanction upon Mr. Beecher's liberal views, the matter was quietly dropped. During the progress of these trials he was again left a widower. In 1836 he married his third wife, Mrs. Lydia Jackson of Boston.

Before the opening of the heresy trials, the seminary received a blow from which it did not recover during Mr. Beecher's incumbency, though he struggled hard for more than seventeen years longer to build up the institution. This

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was the action of the trustees in prohibiting the discussion of the slavery question by the students, in consequence of which the majority of the undergraduates withdrew in 1834, to Oberlin, which had been founded in the preceeding year. In the year 1838, the Presbyterian Church in America became divided into two rival bodies; the affair got into the Civil Courts, and was the cause of endless bickerings. Mr. Beecher warmly espoused the cause of the liberal, or "New School" party. Strenuous efforts were made by the conservative body to oust him from his professorship; they did not succeed, but by withdrawing their support they seriously crippled the resources of the seminary, so that after resigning the pastorate of the Second Church in 1843 Mr. Beecher was largely dependent upon voluntary contributions for his support during the remaining seven years of his connection with Lane.

After eighteen years of persistent and ill-requited toil, varied only by occasional visits to New England and elsewhere, principally in search of money wherewith to keep his seminary alive, and by a short European trip in 1846, Mr. Beecher felt constrained by his advancing age to resign his position. His resignation was accepted; but he retained the nominal presidency during his lifetime. He returned to the East in 1851, and took up his residence once more in Boston, to devote himself to literary pursuits. Every one of his six living sons were now Congregational ministers, as was also a seventh, who died in 1843. Mr. Beecher continued to preach occasionally for a few years, and then his increasing infirmities forced him to throw off the harness which he had worn so many years. In 1856 he purchased a residence in Brooklyn, N. Y.,—where his famous son, Henry Ward, was now settled,—and moved for the last time. Toward the close of his long life his mental powers became much weakened, and he died January 10, 1863, at the patriarchal age of eighty-eight.



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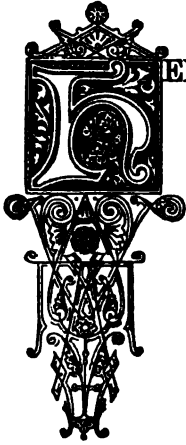
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A striking likeness, after a portrait by John Sartain,
of Philadelphia. [1868 —

RY CLAY.

form 28m

HENRY CLAY.



HENRY CLAY, the most popular civilian which our country has yet produced, was born in Virginia, April 12, 1777. He was the son of a highly esteemed Baptist minister who died in 1781, leaving to his widow and seven children little more than a good name. Henry, as soon as he was able to work, was obliged to contribute his share toward the support of the family. Some trivial circumstance in the boyhood of a great man is frequently seized upon in after years, with apparently no special reason, and made the foundation of a nickname expressive of a humble origin, singularly pleasing to our American fancy. From the fact of his sometimes carrying grain to mill when a boy, Henry Clay became widely known in manhood as "The mill-boy of the Slashes," such being the odd local designation of the district in which he was born. Although denied the advantages of a college course, he made excellent progress at the common school until he was fourteen, when he was sent to Richmond, to become a clerk in a retail store.

Having remained in this position for about a year, he was through the influence of his stepfather and others who recognized his natural abilities, appointed to a clerkship in the Chancery Court, and it was not long before the rude country lad was found to excel his more polished companions who had been at first inclined to treat him with scant consideration. After a time he attracted the notice of Chancellor Wythe, who selected him to write out the decisions of the court, and for

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four years he continued in the employ of that eminent jurist. His course of reading and study during these years proved to be of the greatest value to him, for he never afterward found leisure to apply himself systematically to the pursuit of knowledge. After quitting the Chancery he studied law for about a year, and then received his license. He now followed his mother and stepfather, who had removed to Lexington, Kentucky, and there began to practise law in the year 1797. Although the country was new, Clay met with such good success in his profession, that he was able after a few years to purchase an estate of six hundred acres which afterwards became his home—Ashland. It was at this period of his life that he acquired his unfortunate passion for gaming. He married, in April, 1799, Lucretia Hart, who became a devoted wife, and the mother of eleven children.

Clay's first appearance in politics was in connection with the Convention of 1799 held to revise the Constitution of Kentucky. He argued in favor of an amendment providing for the emancipation of slaves; but this failed to receive popular support. His popularity was greatly increased by his earnest opposition to those questionable measures which were the ruin of the Federal Party—the Alien and Sedition Laws passed during John Adams' administration. In 1803 he was elected to the Kentucky legislature, quickly attaining the foremost rank as an orator. In 1806 he defended Aaron Burr at his first trial, and secured his acquittal. Burr really convinced Clay of his innocence, and the latter was much chagrined when he afterward found how Burr had deceived him with his plausible statements. While the trial was pending, Clay was chosen to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate, where he took his seat December 29, 1806. His term expired on the fourth of the following March, and subsequent calculation has proved, what was at the time entirely unnoticed, that he held the seat illegally, not having arrived at the Constitutional age of thirty. On his return

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to Kentucky he was elected to the legislature, and chosen Speaker, and in 1809 he was again sent to the National Senate, to fill a vacancy. He soon became a leader in debate. He opposed the renewal of the charter of the United States Bank at this time, on the ground of its unconstitutionality, a point on which his opinions afterward underwent a change. Having completed his term as Senator in 1811, he was elected to the National House of Representatives, and was chosen Speaker of that body by a large majority.

The Speakership of the lower house, which confers upon its incumbent an amount of political power second only to that possessed by the President, was held by Henry Clay for a longer period than by any other person among the thirty-two who have been honored with the office. From the twelfth to the sixteenth Congress inclusive, he was continuously re-elected, and then after remaining for two years voluntarily in retirement, he served one term more, finally retiring from the chair, March 3, 1825. None of his decisions were ever reversed, and to this day his name stands on the roll of Speakers without a peer. Mr. Clay was active in promoting the second war with Great Britain; but consented to accept Mr. Madison's appointment as one of the Peace Commissioners, resigning the Speakership for that purpose on the 14th of January, 1814.

Ghent, in the present Kingdom of Belgium was the place selected for the conference, and the American Envoys were received with great hospitality by the citizens, and feasted, both in public and private. This was much more congenial to Mr. Clay than to John Quincy Adams, who was one of his colleagues, the latter reflecting in his diary that much valuable time was wasted in these amusements. The treaty, which was signed December 24, 1814, received Mr. Clay's assent, although it was more favorable to England than he would have had it. He now visited Paris, after which he spent several months negotiating a Commercial treaty

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in London and returned to America in September, 1815. Declining another foreign mission, he resumed his place in Congress.

We now find him advocating, not indeed for the first time, but with especial emphasis, those two measures of governmental policy which he looked upon as of paramount importance, the protective tariff, and the construction of internal improvements by the general government. Now, also, began that long struggle for the glittering prize, which, like the *ignis fatuus* ever eluded his grasp. He hoped to succeed Mr. Monroe in the presidency, and when the last of the old Virginia Dynasty made choice of John Quincy Adams as his Secretary of State, he mortally offended the ambitious Kentuckian, who thereafter antagonized his administration. His over-persistent opposition cost him the friendship of many of the democratic leaders, and he incurred the everlasting hatred of his future rival, General Jackson, by censuring his unauthorized actions in Florida. On the other hand, however, he gained considerable popularity by his advocacy of the cause of the South American republics in their efforts to throw off the Spanish yoke. In 1819 the slavery agitation struck the country like a cyclone, and for two years it overshadowed all other questions. It arose out of the efforts of a portion of the people at the North to exclude slavery from Missouri, which had just applied for admission into the Union. These legitimate efforts were met by violent threats of disunion at the South. In this emergency Henry Clay did not take sides with his own section, but assumed the role, afterward a favorite one with him, of an arbitrator of disputes, and supported the half-way measures known as the Missouri Compromise, which became a law in February, 1821.

Mr. Clay now passed two years in the practice of his profession, this course being rendered imperative by the straitened condition of his finances; but resumed the Speaker's gavel in December, 1823. He soon introduced

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his famous high tariff bill which was passed by a narrow majority after a lengthened debate, President Monroe signing it May 22, 1824, although his State had voted against it. The principle of protection for home industries, which thus became the law of the land by the votes of the Middle and Western States against the opposition of New England and the South, was denominated by Mr. Clay, the "American System," a name by which it has since been familiarly known. The contest for the presidency which occurred in the same year with the passage of the Clay tariff, was entirely a personal one. During Mr. Monroe's administrations the Federal party had quietly passed out of existence, and there was no essential difference in the political views of the four contestants, Jackson, Crawford, Clay, and the younger Adams. They were all members of the popular or Republican party. The election resulted in no choice by the people, and Clay, having to his disappointment received the least number of votes, was out of the race. Jackson had received a plurality of the votes; but Clay used all his influence in the House of Representatives against him, and cast his own vote for Mr. Adams who was elected President. As Mr. Adams immediately appointed Clay Secretary of State, Jackson made a charge of a corrupt bargain between the two, a charge in which he persisted until the close of his life, and which, being reëchoed in the Senate by John Randolph, resulted in the famous duel on the 8th of April, 1826, in which, fortunately, neither Mr. Clay nor Mr. Randolph was hurt. The falsity of Jackson's accusation was soon proved beyond a doubt.

Mr. Clay retained the office of Secretary of State during the four years of John Quincy Adams' administration, and, after its close, spent some time in rest and travel. An overwhelming wave of popularity swept his enemy, Andrew Jackson, into the presidential chair; but he found some consolation in the splendid ovations by which he was everywhere received by his friends. He sought relief from

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the turmoil of politics among his cattle and his crops at Ashland; but his restless ambition refused to be quieted. His partisans now began to assume the name of National Republicans, and afterward of Whigs, as distinguished from the followers of General Jackson who were now called Democratic Republicans, or simply, Democrats.

In December, 1831, Henry Clay entered upon his first full term in the United States Senate, and also received the Whig nomination for the presidency. The re-charter of the United States Bank was made one of the chief issues between the two parties, the Whigs favoring, and the Democrats opposing, the measure. To Clay's bitter disappointment he was defeated in the election which occurred in the following year, Jackson receiving more than three-fourths of the entire electoral vote. Soon after the commencement of the second administration of General Jackson, many heated debates took place in Congress upon the subject of the tariff. In 1833 a compromise measure was passed which for a time quieted the excitement in all sections of the country; in the North and East where protection was generally in favor, and in the South where free-trade was preferred, the opposition to the "American System" being carried in South Carolina to the point of resistance to the Federal laws. This measure originated with Mr. Clay, and from his well-directed efforts to preserve harmony between conflicting interests upon this, and other occasions, he has received the appellation of the "Great Pacificator." At this same period there was much agitation in the country, owing to the course of President Jackson in removing the national deposits from the United States Bank, because, as he claimed, the influence of the Bank was used for party purposes, and the deposits were in danger. In consequence of this act, Clay introduced the celebrated resolutions of censure, which passed the Senate March 28, 1834. Before the close of General Jackson's term, however, the Democrats

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succeeded in having this vote of censure expunged from the records.

Mr. Clay was re-elected to the Senate in 1837—the year of the great financial crisis—and opposed the Van Buren administration at nearly every point. The Whig vote in 1836 had been divided among several candidates, Mr. Clay not being of the number. He confidently expected the Whig nomination in 1840; but, greatly to his chagrin, it was given to General Harrison. He suppressed his resentment however, and gave his support to the Whig ticket. After Mr. Harrison's death, and Mr. Tyler's estrangement from the party which put him in power, Mr. Clay was the leader of the opposition until his voluntary retirement from the Senate, March 31, 1842.

He was still recognized as the leader of his party. Much of his time, for the next two years, was spent in travel and speech-making, and he was received with great popular demonstrations in all parts of the Union. In 1844 he was again put in nomination for the presidency, and again suffered the keen mortification of defeat. Mr. Clay's hostile attitude toward the abolitionists drove a large number of them to support a third candidate, James G. Birney, and this defection gave the State of New York to the Democrats, and the election to Mr. Polk.

He now remained for some years in retirement at his home at Ashland. He was embarrassed by debts, and Ashland was deeply mortgaged; but a number of his friends in different parts of the country came to his relief, and that in such a delicate manner that he never had any knowledge of the sources from which his unexpected assistance came. During this period of retirement, the Mexican war took place and his eldest son, Colonel Henry Clay, was killed at Buena Vista, February 23, 1847. Henry Clay, though now further advanced in years than any man who was ever chosen to the presidency, still craved that office, and he was

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so deeply hurt when General Taylor was nominated by the Whigs, in 1848, that he refused to give him his support.

Henry Clay was a slaveholder, but was an advocate of gradual emancipation, and fearlessly contended against the extension of slavery. The growing preponderance of the North excited the jealousy of the Southern people, long accustomed to rule, and their leaders, blinded to the blighting influence of their favorite system, were already determined to disregard all warnings, and try the experiment of a dissolution of the Union. Clay earnestly desired to avert this catastrophe, and in the hope that the magic of his influence would accomplish that end, he once more entered the feverish arena of politics, and was elected by the Kentucky legislature to the National Senate, in 1849, without a dissenting voice. On the 29th of January, 1850, he began the supreme effort of his life, by the introduction of his compromise scheme, the leading feature of which was the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law, as a compensation to the South for the admission of California as a free State. During the impassioned debates which followed, he boldly proclaimed his unfailing loyalty to the Union. His measures were carried, and the patriotic old man went to his grave with the conviction that he had saved his country. But his bodily strength was exhausted. A trip to Cuba, in the spring of 1851, proved of little benefit, and after his return he continued to fail rapidly. He was unable to take any part in the proceedings of the Thirty-Second Congress; but insisted upon going to Washington, where, worn out with age and the effects of his many disappointments, he died, June 29, 1852, in his seventy-sixth year, his death being lamented as that of no other American had been since Washington's. Like Webster's, the keynote of his conduct in national politics was the preservation of the Union, and also, like Webster's, his unfortunate ambition was a fruitful source of weariness and vexation of spirit.



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STEPHEN DECATUR.

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STEPHEN DECATUR.



STEPHEN DECATUR was born at Sinepuxent, Md., January 5, 1779. He inherited his love for the sea from his father, who was an officer of some distinction in the service of his country during the revolutionary struggle. While he was yet an infant, the Decatur family returned to their home in Philadelphia, which they had abandoned during the British occupation. Stephen made his first voyage in the year 1787, in company with his father, who had entered the merchant-service at the close of the war. After the usual primary and academical course of study, he entered the Pennsylvania University; but remained there little more than a year, becoming dissatisfied with the restraints of college life. He was an unusually manly lad, and longed to find active employment for his rapidly maturing faculties. In 1796, he entered the counting-room of the mercantile house with which his father was associated, continuing, however, his studies in the mathematics and in naval architecture. He advanced so rapidly in his knowledge of the latter branch, that he was employed by his firm, who were navy agents, to superintend the getting out of the keel-pieces for the new frigate, *United States*, then in process of construction. At a subsequent period he held command of this same vessel.

In 1798, Stephen Decatur received, to his great satisfaction, a warrant as midshipman in the navy. His first cruise

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was in the *United States* frigate under Commodore Barry, against the French privateers, who were plundering American merchantmen, so soon had the French people forgotten their much vaunted friendship for our country. His experiences for the next two and a half years, or until the difficulties with France were adjusted, were both varied and honorable. He assisted in the capture of several of the enemy's cruisers, visited the West Indies, accompanied his frigate to Spain, and was employed for a time at Philadelphia on recruiting service. His gallantry and his courteous manners made him a favorite with his superiors, and he was, in 1799, promoted to the rank of lieutenant. It happened, that while he was engaged in recruiting, he was upon one occasion grossly insulted by the mate of an Indiaman. It would appear that young Decatur was disposed to overlook the affront; but his father insisted that he should challenge the offender. In thus fostering a barbarous sense of "honor" by his ill-judged advice, Captain Decatur became indirectly responsible for his son's untimely fate; but, happily for himself, he did not live to see the fatal fruits of his folly. Lieutenant Decatur, who was a good shot, purposely refrained from hitting his antagonist in any vital part, and was himself unhurt. In 1801, when the navy was reduced, owing to the cessation of hostilities, he was among the number of lieutenants whom it was deemed proper to retain in the service.

He was not long to remain inactive. Only a few months had elapsed when he became attached to the squadron under Commodore Richard Dale, sent to chastise the barbarians of Northern Africa for their outrages upon American commerce. He sailed in May, 1801, as first lieutenant of the frigate *Essex*, which was employed for about a year in convoying American merchantmen in the Mediterranean and in watching the Tripolitan cruisers at Gibraltar. While in the harbor of Barcelona, Decatur had an altercation with a Spanish officer which would have ended in a duel had not Captain

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Bainbridge, of the *Essex*, united with the Spanish authorities to prevent it. Decatur returned to New York with his frigate in July, 1802.

He was now transferred to the *New York*, Captain James Barron, and, in September, again sailed for the Mediterranean, there to join the squadron under Commodore Richard V. Morris. At Malta, early in the year 1803, he became connected, as a second for a fellow-officer, in another affair of honor, in which a British officer was killed, and to avoid his surrender to the civil authorities, he was sent home in the *Chesapeake*, as a passenger. Almost immediately upon his arrival he was given charge of the brig *Argos*, which he took to Gibraltar and transferred to a senior officer, and then assumed the command of the schooner *Enterprise*. On the 23d of December he captured the Tripolitan ketch, *Mastico*, which was at once taken into the American service under the name of the *Intrepid*. The Tripolitans had not long before captured the fine frigate, *Philadelphia*, a gift to the United States, from the city whose name she bore, and whose first commander had been Decatur's own father. Commodore Preble was now in command of the Mediterranean fleet, and to that celebrated officer Decatur applied for permission to undertake the destruction of the *Philadelphia*, for as she lay under the guns of the castle at Tripoli, partly dismantled, it was impossible to get her out of the harbor.

The coveted permission being granted, the brave lieutenant sailed from Syracuse, where the squadron was temporarily detained by the boisterous weather, on the 3d of February, 1804, in the prize ketch *Intrepid*. He commanded a picked crew of seventy-five men, and was accompanied by the *Siren*, Lieutenant Stewart. Owing to the terrific winter storms, it was thirteen days before they could enter the harbor of Tripoli. At nightfall on the 16th, the *Intrepid* silently approached the enemy, and soon were within range

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of the guns of the frigate, which had been double-shotted. One broadside would have sent the attacking party to the bottom. They were hailed from the frigate, but owing to their Moorish rig, they easily persuaded the enemy that they were natives who had lost their anchors, and so approached closely before the suspicions of the barbarians were aroused. Suddenly, Decatur gave the order to board. So unexpected was the attack that the astonished Tripolitans attempted only a feeble resistance, and, in ten minutes, Decatur and his brave crew were in possession. One of the boarding party was wounded; of the enemy many were killed or drowned while attempting to escape. Quantities of combustibles were now distributed through the doomed frigate, the torch was applied, and she soon became enveloped in a raging mass of flames. With difficulty Decatur and his men made their escape to their little vessel. Not until she was almost out of the range of the Tripolitan batteries did the bewildered garrisons recover themselves sufficiently to open fire upon the retreating victors, now clearly visible in the glare of the conflagration. The flames, after discharging a full broadside against the city, communicated with the magazine, and the destruction of the *Philadelphia* was complete. Two days later the Americans reached Syracuse in safety. Europe and America rang with the praises of the gallant Decatur, and the great British Admiral, Nelson, pronounced the affair, "the most bold and daring act of the age."

During Commodore Preble's attack upon the city of Tripoli, August 3, 1804, Decatur again displayed great bravery, especially in a hand-to-hand encounter with one of the enemy. He was in charge of a division of the gunboats, one of which was commanded by his brother, James Decatur. This latter officer was mortally wounded by the treacherous captain of a Tripolitan vessel after she had struck her colors. Stephen, who had already captured one of the enemy's boats, burned with the desire to avenge the outrage. He

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sought out the assassin's vessel, boarded it with only ten men to support him, and soon engaged in mortal combat with the captain, a barbarian of extraordinary size. Decatur's cutlass was shattered in his grasp, and the combatants grappled. The advantage was all with the powerful Tripolitan; but, by good fortune, Decatur managed to fire his pistol through his pocket, and his brother's murderer fell dead. Decatur withdrew with his two prizes, and reached the flagship *Constitution* just in time to see his brother breathe his last. Shortly after these occurrences, the *John Adams* frigate arrived from America, bringing to Decatur a captain's commission, and the thanks of the President. He was also voted a sword by Congress.

Having been superseded in the command of the fleet by Commodore Samuel Barron, Preble resigned to Decatur the *Constitution*, the most famous vessel of our old navy, long known as *Old Ironsides*. After having his frigate refitted at Malta, he proceeded to Syracuse where he was transferred, by order of Commodore Barron, to the command of the *Congress*. No further operations were conducted against Tripoli, and in June, 1805, a treaty of peace was concluded. Decatur was soon sent to Tunis, where the fleet, now under command of Commodore John Rodgers, arrived on the 1st of August. Difficulties with the Bey of Tunis were soon arranged, and Decatur then returned to the United States, after an absence of two years, bearing with him in the *Congress* the new Tunisian ambassador. The *Congress* went out of commission, and Decatur retired for a time to his father's residence, near Philadelphia.

In 1806 he married Miss Wheeler, of Norfolk, Va., at which place he resided for several months. Early in the following year he assumed charge of Gosport Navy Yard. For many years the government of Great Britain had been growing more and more unfriendly toward America. In June, 1807, though in time of peace, the United States ship

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Chesapeake, Commodore James Barron, was fired upon, off Hampton Roads by the British man-of-war, *Leopard*, and struck her colors. The commander of the *Leopard* thereupon proceeded to seize four seamen from the *Chesapeake*, whom he claimed as deserters. For being unprepared to defend his ship, Barron was cashiered. Decatur was a member of the court-martial, and succeeded Barron in the command of the *Chesapeake*.

He was now for several years commodore of the fleet designed to protect our Southern coasts. In 1810 he transferred his pennant to the *United States*, the frigate which he had helped to build, and in which he had been launched. Upon the declaration of war with Great Britain, he was ordered to join Commodore Rodgers, at New York, where he arrived June 21, 1812. After a successful cruise, during which six British merchant vessels were captured, the consolidated squadron returned to Boston. On the 8th of October they again put to sea, and on the 25th, when near the Island of Madeira, the *United States* came up with the British frigate *Macedonian*. The action which ensued, though short, was hotly contested. Decatur's admirable training had made his crew very expert gunners, and the loss of life on the British vessel was enormously greater than that on our own. Once again the brave commodore was victorious. When the *Macedonian* struck her colors she was a total wreck. After the necessary repairs, Decatur brought her safely into New London; and then followed the succession of banquets, swords, medals, and votes of thanks customary on such occasions.

He remained for the next two years in the vicinity of New York and Long Island Sound, chafing under the restraints imposed upon him by the presence of a powerful British blockading fleet. In the spring of 1814, he was transferred to the *President*, and placed in command of the naval defences of New York harbor. In January, 1815, it having

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become evident that the British had no intention of attacking New York, he eluded the blockading fleet, and put to sea; but, becoming disabled, he was overtaken by four of the enemy's ships. He made a gallant resistance, but was compelled to surrender to the superior force, being wounded in the action. News travelled slowly in those days; the *President* was captured three weeks after the treaty of peace had been signed. Decatur was taken to Bermuda, receiving from his captors every possible courtesy; but was quickly released on parole, and returned home in his Majesty's frigate *Narcissus*, arriving at New London on Washington's birthday.

His next service was in the Mediterranean. With a squadron under his command he inflicted severe punishment on the pirates of Northern Africa, who had, during our war with England, violated their treaties with the United States. Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli were forced into submission, and new treaties were made, upon terms more favorable than any yet granted to a Christian State by the Barbary powers. This highly important duty was accomplished in less than three months. After his return to the United States, in November, 1815, Decatur, now universally regarded by his countrymen as one of her greatest heroes, was appointed a commissioner of the navy. He strenuously opposed the reinstatement of the cashiered Commodore Barron, which led to an acrimonious correspondence, and finally to a challenge on the part of Barron, which was promptly accepted by Decatur. The meeting took place March 22, 1820, at Bladensburg. Decatur was mortally wounded at the first fire, and died after a few hours of intense agony. This great man, after a brief career of dazzling brilliancy, honorable to himself and useful to his country, after winning the proud title of "Champion of Christendom," died in the very plenitude of his intellectual and physical powers, and died like a fool.

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